

**TEACHING PERSUASIVE ARGUMENT ESSAY WRITING TO ADOLESCENT
ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS THROUGH THE *READING TO LEARN*
APPROACH**

by

Kathleen Ann Ramos

B.A. Spanish, Clarion University of Pennsylvania, 1985

M.A.T. Foreign Language Teaching, University of Pittsburgh, 1990

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of
School of Education in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

University of Pittsburgh

2012

UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

This dissertation was presented

by

Kathleen Ann Ramos

It was defended on

November 9, 2012

and approved by

Dr. Richard Donato, Associate Professor, Department of Instruction and Learning

Dr. Lindsay Matsumura, Associate Professor, Department of Instruction and Learning

Dr. Mariana Achugar, Associate Professor, Carnegie Mellon University, Department of

Modern Languages

Dissertation Advisor: Dr. Linda Kucan, Associate Professor, Department of Instruction and

Learning

Copyright © by Kathleen Ann Ramos

2012

**TEACHING PERSUASIVE ARGUMENT ESSAY WRITING TO ADOLESCENT
ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS THROUGH THE *READING TO LEARN*
APPROACH**

Kathleen Ann Ramos, PhD

University of Pittsburgh, 2012

A persistent achievement gap exists between the steadily growing population of adolescent English language learners (ELLs) in K-12 public schools and their native English-speaking peers. Unsurprisingly, the underachievement of this population of students is linked to an excessively high dropout rate among adolescent ELLs across the nation. Current research highlights the critical need for instructional approaches that support these learners in developing academic English and advanced literacy practices. Through research-based effective instructional practices that support the attainment of advanced literacy practices, these culturally and linguistically diverse learners are afforded access to post-secondary educational and career opportunities from which they are otherwise excluded.

A growing body of research suggests that genre-based pedagogy is an effective instructional approach for apprenticing adolescent ELLs into academically-valued writing practices across school-based genres. Drawing on this research, this study employed a pretest/posttest design to investigate the effect of the genre-based *Reading to Learn* approach, grounded in systemic functional linguistics, on adolescent ELLs' competency in writing academically successful persuasive argument essays. Following an ethnographic approach, this study also investigated the way that the participants perceived the effects of the *Reading to Learn* approach on their development as a second language writers. Finally, this study aimed to richly

describe the challenges of designing and implementing an instructional intervention using the *Reading to Learn* approach in an urban public high school English as a Second Language (ESL) classroom.

Findings indicate that the *Reading to Learn* approach had a significant effect on the participants' competency for writing academically-valued persuasive argument essays. Despite challenges in designing and implementing an instructional intervention using the *Reading to Learn* approach, these findings contribute to the growing body of evidence that suggests that this genre-based instructional framework may support adolescent ELLs' progress toward the development of advanced literacy practices.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

1.0	INTRODUCTION	1
1.1	A MATTER OF SOCIAL JUSTICE	3
1.2	THE READING TO LEARN FRAMEWORK	5
1.2.1	The central purpose	5
1.2.2	Central tenents of the <i>reading to learn</i> methodology	6
2.0	LITERATURE REVIEW	10
2.1	SYSTEMIC FUNCTIONAL LINGUISTICS	11
2.2	EDUCATIONAL EQUITY AND EDUCATIONAL LINGUISTICS	16
2.3	GENRE PEDAGOGY	20
2.3.1	The language and social power phase of the Sydney school	20
2.3.2	The write it right phase of the Sydney school	23
2.3.3	The reading to learn phase of the Sydney school	27
2.4	THE LINGUISTIC FEATURES OF ADVANCED LITERACY PRACTICES IN SUBJECT ENGLISH	30
2.4.1	Grammatical metaphor	33
2.4.2	Related research about the linguistic features of advanced literacy practices	35
2.5	GENRE PEDAGOGY: STRENGTHS AND CHALLENGES	39
2.5.1	The potential of genre pedagogy	39

2.5.2	The challenges of implementation	44
3.0	METHODOLOGY	52
3.1	PROCEDURES	52
3.1.1	The preparing to read stage	54
3.1.2	The detailed reading stage	55
3.1.3	The joint construction stage	56
3.1.4	The individual construction stage	56
3.2	DESCRIPTION OF THE INSTRUCTIONAL INTERVENTION	57
3.3	PARTICIPANTS	66
3.3.1	Focal students	68
3.3.1.1	Asha	69
3.3.1.2	Htoo	70
3.3.1.3	Roshan	70
3.3.1.4	Soe	71
3.3.1.5	Tika	71
3.3.1.6	Pilar	72
3.4	INSTRUCTIONAL CONTEXT	73
3.4.1	Curricular materials	75
3.4.1.1	Learning in unit 6	75
3.4.1.2	Introduction to the genre of persuasive nonfiction	77
3.4.1.3	Reading a persuasive nonfiction text	79
3.4.2	Key differences between curricular materials and genre-based pedagogy	81

3.5	DATA SOURCES	84
3.5.1	Pretest	85
3.5.2	Post-instructional unit survey	87
3.5.3	Posttest	88
3.5.4	Performance criteria and assessment tool	90
3.5.4.1	Realizing ideational meanings	92
3.5.4.2	Realizing interpersonal meanings	92
3.5.4.3	Realizing textual meanings	93
3.5.4.4	Designing the performance criteria and assessment tool	94
3.5.5	Follow-up interviews	95
3.5.6	Exemplars of focal students' work	97
3.5.7	Teacher/researcher's reflections and videotape excerpts	98
3.5.8	Log of institutional activities affecting study implementation	99
3.6	DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION.....	100
3.6.1	Quantitative data analyses	100
3.6.1.1	Pretest and posttest student essays	100
3.6.1.2	Interrater reliability	102
3.6.2	Qualitative data analyses	107
3.6.2.1	Post-instructional unit surveys	107
3.6.2.2	Focal students' persuasive argument essays for or against amnesty	107
3.6.2.3	Follow-up interviews with focal students	108

4.0	THE BUILDING FIELD STAGE	109
4.1	THE PURPOSE OF THE BUILDING FIELD STAGE	109
4.2	THE BUILDING FIELD LESSONS	111
4.2.1	Text selection for the building field lessons	111
4.2.2	What is immigration amnesty?	112
4.2.3	The advantages of amnesty	115
4.2.4	Roots of migration	119
4.2.5	Cons for amnesty for illegal immigrants	121
4.2.6	Immigration amnesty pros and cons	125
4.2.7	A news article text	129
4.3	SUMMARY OF BUILDING FIELD LESSONS	131
5.0	THE PREPARING TO READ STAGE	133
5.1	THE PURPOSE OF THE PREPARING TO READ STAGE	133
5.2	THE LESSONS IN THE PREPARING TO READ STAGE	135
5.2.1	The first lesson in the preparing to read stage	135
5.2.2	The second lesson in the preparing to read stage	143
5.3	SUMMARY OF PREPARING TO READ LESSONS	151
6.0	THE DETAILED READING STAGE	153
6.1	THE PURPOSE OF THE DETAILED READING STAGE	153
6.2	THE LESSONS IN THE DETAILED READING STAGE	154
6.2.1	The first lesson in the detailed reading stage	156
6.2.2	The second lesson in the detailed reading stage	166
6.2.3	The third lesson in the detailed reading stage	172

6.2.4	The fourth lesson in the detailed reading stage	177
6.2.5	The fifth lesson in the detailed reading stage	183
6.2.6	The sixth lesson in the detailed reading stage	189
6.2.7	The final lesson in the detailed reading stage	197
6.3	SUMMARY OF DETAILED READING LESSONS	200
7.0	THE JOINT CONSTRUCTION STAGE	202
7.1	PURPOSE OF THE JOINT CONSTRUCTION STAGE	202
7.2	THE LESSONS IN THE JOINT CONSTRUCTION STAGE	203
7.2.1	The first lesson in the joint construction stage	203
7.2.2	The second lesson in the joint construction stage	208
7.2.3	The third lesson in the joint construction stage	214
7.3	FOCAL STUDENT EXEMPLARS FROM THE JOINT CONSTRUCTION STAGE.....	223
7.4	SUMMARY OF JOINT CONSTRUCTION LESSONS	224
8.0	REVISITING DETAILED READING AND COMPLETING INDIVIDUAL CONSTRUCTION	226
8.1	DECONSTRUCTING THE MODEL TEXT AGAINST AMNESTY THROUGH DETAILED READING.....	227
8.1.1	The first lesson in deconstructing the second model text	227
8.1.2	The second lesson in deconstructing the second model text	235
8.1.3	The third lesson in deconstructing the second model text	244
8.1.4	The final lesson before individual construction	252
8.2	THE INDIVIDUAL CONSTRUCTION STAGE	255

8.2.1	Writing the persuasive argument essays	258
8.3	EXCERPTS FROM FOCAL STUDENTS' INDEPENDENTLY WRITTEN ESSAYS.....	262
9.0	FINDINGS	270
9.1	INTRODUCTION TO FINDINGS	271
9.2	RESEARCH QUESTION ONE: WHAT WAS THE POTENTIAL EFFECT OF THE GENRE-BASED <i>READING TO LEARN</i> INSTRUCTIONAL APPROACH ON ADOLESCENT ELLS' ABILITY TO WRITE PERSUASIVE ESSAYS?.....	272
9.2.1	Statistical analyses	272
9.2.2	Htoo's pretest/posttest persuasive essays	277
9.2.3	Tika's pretest/posttest persuasive essays	281
9.2.4	Asha's pretest/posttest persuasive essays	286
9.2.5	Pilar's pretest/posttest persuasive essays	292
9.2.6	Roshan's pretest/posttest persuasive essays	296
9.2.7	Soe's pretest/posttest persuasive essays	301
9.2.8	Summary of functional linguistic analyses	304
9.3	RESEARCH QUESTION TWO: HOW DID THE ADOLESCENT ELLS IN THIS INVESTIGATION PERCEIVE THE EFFECT OF THE <i>READING TO LEARN</i> INSTRUCTIONAL APPROACH ON THEIR WRITING DEVELOPMENT?.....	306
9.3.1	Findings from the post-instructional unity survey	307
9.3.2	Focal students' responses to follow-up interview	310
9.3.2.1	Focal students' comparisons of pretest/	

posttest essays	311
9.3.2.2 Focal students' perceptions of independently written amnesty essays	313
9.3.2.3 Focal students' responses about the success of the instructional unit	317
9.3.3 Summary of findings from research question two	319
9.4 RESEARCH QUESTION THREE: WHAT ARE THE UNIQUE CHALLENGES OF DEVELOPING AND IMPLEMENTING THE GENRE-BASED <i>READING TO LEARN</i> INSTRUCTIONAL APPROACH WITH PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOL ELLS IN THE ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE CLASSROOM?	321
9.4.1 The decision to design an instructional intervention based on the <i>Reading to Learn</i> approach	322
9.4.2 Challenges of developing the <i>Reading to Learn</i> lessons	323
9.4.3 Professional challenges of developing the <i>Reading to Learn</i> lessons	328
9.4.4 Institutional factors affecting the implementation of the instructional intervention	332
10.0 DISCUSSION	334
10.1 POSITIVE OUTCOMES OF IMPLEMENTING THE <i>READING TO LEARN</i> APPROACH	335
10.1.1 Connections to other theories and approaches in second language learning	337
10.2 CHALLENGES OF IMPLEMENTING THE <i>READING TO LEARN</i>	

APPROACH.....	340
10.3 THE LIMITATIONS OF THE CURRENT INVESTIGATION	346
10.4 GENRE-BASED CURRICULAR MATERIALS, TEACHER TRAINING AND FUTURE RESEARCH.....	349
10.4.1 Genre-based curricular materials	349
10.4.2 Teachers' prerequisite knowledge about language and implications for future research	351
APPENDIX A	354
APPENDIX B	357
APPENDIX C	360
APPENDIX D	362
APPENDIX E	363
APPENDIX F	365
APPENDIX G	366
APPENDIX H	368
APPENDIX I	370
APPENDIX J	371
APPENDIX K	373
APPENDIX L	375
APPENDIX M	377
APPENDIX N	379
APPENDIX O	380

APPENDIX P	382
APPENDIX Q	384
APPENDIX R	386
APPENDIX S	388
APPENDIX T	391
APPENDIX U	393
APPENDIX V	396
BIBLIOGRAPHY	398

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. The Central Tenets of the <i>Reading to Learn</i> Framework	6
Table 2. Timeline for the Instructional Intervention	58
Table 3. Linguistic Resources for Persuasive Argument Essays	62
Table 4. Organization of Chapters about the Instructional Intervention	66
Table 5. Demographic Information about Participants	68
Table 6. A Comparison of Approaches to Writing Instruction	83
Table 7. Research Questions and Data Sources	85
Table 8. Pretest Total Scores by Three Raters	103
Table 9. Posttest Total Scores by Three Raters	104
Table 10. Think-Pair-Share about the Social Purpose of Persuasive Argument Essays	149
Table 11. Research Questions, Data Sources, and Data Analysis	271
Table 12. Pretest and Posttest Essay Scores for Three Meanings and Total Score	273
Table 13. Descriptive Statistics for Difference Scores Pretest to Posttest	274
Table 14. Ranks for Difference Scores on Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test	275
Table 15. Results from Post-Instructional Unit Survey Questions Two, Three, and Four	306
Table 16. Focal Students' Responses to Question Five on Post-Instructional Unit Survey	308
Table 17. Focal Students' Comparisons of Pretest to Posttest Essays	311

Table 18. Focal Students' Perceptions about the Success of the Instructional Unit	318
---	-----

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. The <i>Reading to Learn</i> Framework	7
Figure 2. The Relation of Language to Social and Cultural Context	14
Figure 3. Rothery's Teaching/Learning Cycle	22
Figure 4. Write it Right Teaching/Learning Cycle	24
Figure 5. Halliday's Stratified Model of Language	28
Figure 6. Agreement between Rater 1 and Rater 2	104
Figure 7. Agreement between Rater 1 and Rater 3	105
Figure 8. Agreement between Rater 2 and Rater 3	105
Figure 9. Introducing the Language Tools that Realize Meanings in a Persuasive Argument Essay	144
Figure 10. Color-Coded Key of Linguistic (Language) Tools for Writing Academically-Valued Persuasive Essays	155
Figure 11. A Recap of Language Resources Used in Paragraphs 1 and 2	184
Figure 12. Instructional Task for Practicing Authoritative Language Use	245
Figure 13. Example Pro and Con Text Used in Jigsaw Activity	253

PREFACE

I wish to extend a very special thanks to my husband, John E. Ramos, for his patience, understanding, and support throughout this journey. I also wish to warmly thank my entire family for their encouragement to persevere one step at a time. Finally, I wish to express deep gratitude to my advisor, Linda Kucan, for accompanying me on this journey and believing in me from the very beginning.

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The growing population of English language learners (ELLs) in K-12 schools has led to an increasingly complex challenge to design and implement instruction that supports the development of academic language and advanced literacy practices for these students (Aguirre-Munoz, Park, Amabisca, & Boscardin, 2008; Colombi & Schleppegrell, 2002). Attaining advanced literacy practices is an acute challenge for adolescent ELLs who have reached a sufficient level of oral proficiency to survive in school but who continue to struggle with the academic language and literacy demands across content areas (Hammond & Gibbons, 2005; Schleppegrell, 2004; Short & Fitzsimmons, 2007).

That is, learning to write successfully in the academic genres that are valued in schools represents a specific difficulty for adolescent ELLs (Schleppegrell, 2001, 2004). Yet, academically-valued writing is an essential language and literacy skill that must be attained in order for adolescent ELLs to gain access to post-secondary educational and career opportunities (Colombi & Schleppegrell, 2002).

A principled search for research-based instructional approaches that may support adolescent ELLs from diverse linguistic, cultural, and educational backgrounds in the attainment of academic English language proficiency and advanced literacy practices motivated this current investigation. A growing body of research suggests that genre pedagogy may offer a promising pathway to advanced literacy development for diverse learners (Christie, 2012; Rose & Martin,

2012). A call has sounded for research in the K-12 context that investigates the relevance and usefulness of genre pedagogy for supporting second language academic literacy development in English (Gebhard & Harman, 2011; Martin, 2009). This current investigation responds to that call.

Specifically, this study is warranted by research that suggests that the genre-based and theoretically-informed *Reading to Learn* framework (Martin & Rose, 2005; Rose, 2005; Rose, 2006; Rose & Martin, 2012) may support culturally and linguistically diverse learners in reaching higher levels of academic literacy practices, particularly in reading and writing school-based genres.

The *Reading to Learn* framework (Martin & Rose, 2005; Rose, 2005; Rose, 2006; Rose & Martin, 2012) is a genre-based pedagogical approach developed by educational linguists in Australia. This instructional approach aims to support the development of academic reading and writing skills for all students across grade levels and subject areas. In turn, development of the increasingly complex reading and writing skills that each stage of schooling demands may build students' capacity for learning in school.

The *Reading to Learn* framework (Martin & Rose, 2005; Rose & Martin, 2012) emerged from iterations of action-oriented research conducted by Australian educational linguists across decades. This extensive research centered on the development of genre-based pedagogy (Christie & Martin, 1997; Rothery, 1996; Macken-Horarik, 1996; Martin, 2002), underpinned by a theory of language (Halliday, 1993), a theory of learning (Vygotsky, 1978), and sociological theory (Bernstein, 1975, 1990).

The *Reading to Learn* framework informed the development and implementation of the instructional intervention described in this investigation. In this introduction, the principle tenets

and purpose of the *Reading to Learn* framework in supporting all students to successfully learn to read and write texts school-based genres (e.g., personal narratives, interpretations of literature, expositions) (Rose, 2006) are described. In particular, the usefulness of this approach with adolescent English language learners (ELLs) is emphasized.

1.1 A MATTER OF SOCIAL JUSTICE

At the core of the application of genre pedagogy to classroom practice is the belief that genre pedagogy can affect change for social justice and that teachers are the preeminent agents of such change (Rose & Martin, 2012). In this sense, the notion of social justice refers to addressing the inequitable access to participation in literacy learning activities in schools experienced by many students.

This lack of equal access to school-valued reading and writing practices is particularly acute for students whose dominant language is one other than English (Chrisite, 2012; Colombi & Schleppegrell, 2002; Schleppegrell 2001, 2004; Rose, 2005). That is, encountering an entry point into participation in the advanced literacy practices necessary for academic success in high school and in post-secondary studies poses an immense hurdle for adolescent ELLs (Colombi & Schleppegrell, 2002; Short & Fitzsimmons, 2007).

Rose and Martin (2012) argued that this inequality of participation, which creates hierarchies of success and failure (Bernstein, 1990, 1996), is compounded by ineffective instructional practices that fail to support all students in classroom learning and individual learning from reading. That is, ineffective instructional practices fail to explicitly teach the reading and writing skills that are necessary for academic success, perpetuating instead an

invisible pedagogy (Bernstein, 1996) that leaves many students struggling to tacitly acquire these skills (Rose, 2005).

The *Reading to Learn* framework is anchored in a goal to democratize the classroom (Rose, 2005; Martin & Rose, 2005; Rose & Martin, 2012) through the explicit teaching of the tasks of reading and writing across school curricula. Specifically, the *Reading to Learn* framework enables teachers to systematically deconstruct the complexity of reading and writing tasks, thus creating a *visible pedagogy* (Bernstein, 1996) that prepares all students to read curriculum texts and to use what they have learned from reading in their writing (Martin & Rose, 2005; Rose, 2005; Rose & Martin, 2012).

Derewianka (2003) and Macken-Horarik (2002) suggested the usefulness of genre pedagogy in inducting culturally and linguistically diverse students into academically-valued genres in schools:

Genre-based pedagogy recognizes that certain genres are more powerful than others and is concerned with helping students from non-mainstream backgrounds to acquire and critique the genres required for success in schooling. It proposes that students at risk of failure benefit from a visible curriculum—explicit induction into the genres of power—if they are to participate in the mainstream textual and social processes within and beyond the school (Derewianka, 2003, p. 142).

In the current investigation, the *Reading to Learn* framework informed the development of an instructional intervention that was implemented over a period of eight weeks in an English as a Second Language (ESL) classroom with a diverse group of adolescent ELLs in an urban public high school. In order to situate the implementation of the *Reading to Learn* framework in this instructional context, the following sections explain the central purpose and tenets of the *Reading to Learn* framework.

1.2 THE *READING TO LEARN* FRAMEWORK

1.2.1 The central purpose

The *Reading to Learn* framework is a model for literacy instruction, grounded in genre pedagogy, which embraces the overarching goal of democratizing the outcomes of education systems (Rose, 2005; Rose & Martin, 2012). Emerging out of decades of research about the academic reading and writing practices that schools expect of students (Christie & Martin, 1997; Rothery, 1996; Macken-Horarik, 1996; Martin, 2002), the *Reading to Learn* framework was developed in response to the ways that schools enhance and constrain the opportunities of different groups of students (Rose & Martin, 2012).

Specifically, the development of the *Reading to Learn* framework was shaped by the action-oriented research of educational linguists in rural and urban schools in Australia with marginalized students, including immigrant students whose first language was not English, and their teachers (Rose, 2005; Rose, 2011b; Rose & Martin, 2012). Informed by this research, a genre-based framework was designed to provide teachers with the tools that they need to overcome the inequality of access, participation, and outcomes for linguistically-marginalized and other disadvantaged students in schools (Rose & Martin, 2012).

Rose and Martin (2012) offer the *Reading to Learn* framework as a fully-systematic, theoretically-informed methodology that teachers can employ as an instructional tool to support all students, especially those who are often marginalized by school systems, in attaining academic literacy skills appropriate to their grade level.

The following section describes the central tenets which inform the design of this genre pedagogy methodology.

1.2.2 Central tenets of the *reading to learn* methodology

The *Reading to Learn* methodology is an integrated approach to literacy instruction that has been designed and refined through extensive classroom application (Rose, 2005, 2006; Rose & Martin, 2012). This methodology is now employed in schools with mainstream English-speaking and linguistically-diverse students across Australia as well as internationally (e.g., South Africa and Latin America) (Rose & Martin, 2012).

Rose and Martin (2012) described the central tenets that informed the design of the *Reading to Learn* framework. These central tenets which guided the development of the *Reading to Learn* approach are summarized in Table 1 below.

Table 1. The Central Tenets of the *Reading to Learn* Framework

Central Tenet	Explanation
Reading involves four levels of meaning.	These levels of meaning are decoding words, identifying meanings within sentences, inferring connections across a text, and interpreting relations to the social context of a text.
Learning to read occurs through explicit guidance.	Guidance through interaction in the context of shared experience makes literacy and language learning visible to all students.
Guidance takes place in highly predictable cycles of interaction.	Teachers ask focus questions, affirm students' responses, and elaborate with further information, explanations, or examples. These elaborations may be interactive.
Reading development occurs over time and extends throughout all years of schooling.	Literacy instruction begins with a high level of support; in later stages, students can be guided to identify, infer, and interpret meanings as a text is read.

(Adapted from Rose & Martin, 2012, p. 146).

Rose and Martin (2012) reported promising results of David Rose's work to apply these key principles to the design of reading and writing instruction in collaboration with teachers and teacher educators across school subject areas throughout Australia. These results, corroborated

by independent evaluations, indicated accelerated literacy development of all students, including non-English speaking adolescents (McRae et al., 2000) and particularly for those students who began the reading and writing instruction with the weakest skills (Culican, 2006; Rose, 2011a; Rose et al., 2008).

Over time, iterations of this action-oriented research shaped the *Reading to Learn* methodology into a framework that was “broad and flexible enough to work in any pedagogic situation” (Rose & Martin, 2012, p. 138). Specifically, the *Reading to Learn* methodology comprises nine strategies situated in three levels of support that scaffold reading and writing tasks and can be implemented in various teaching and learning contexts (Rose & Martin, 2012). Figure 1 below depicts these nine strategies within the three levels of support:

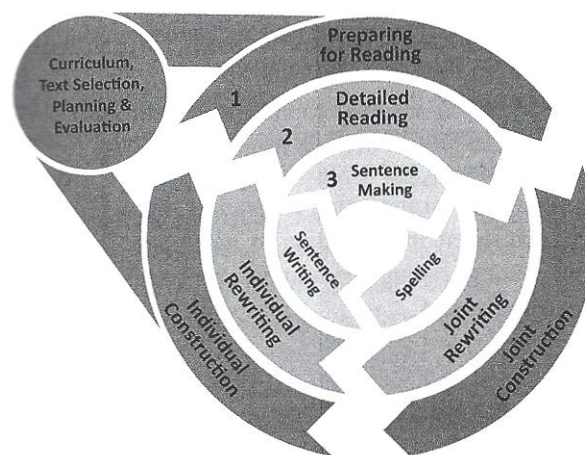


Figure 1. The Reading to Learn Framework (Rose & Martin, 2012, p. 147)

Thus, these nine strategies, could be extended for use with the school-based genres (e.g., narrative, historical explanation, lab report, argument) that students were expected to read and write in secondary school (Rose & Martin, 2012). That is, Rose and Martin (2012) proposed the *Reading to Learn* methodology as a pedagogical tool for teachers to employ in designing effective reading and writing instruction in any disciplinary area.

In this investigation, several options within the *Reading to Learn* framework were employed in the design of an instructional intervention which was implemented with a group of 15 to 21-year-old adolescent ELLs from several different cultural and language backgrounds in an urban public high school ESL classroom. The principal goal of this instructional intervention was to build the capacity of these students to read and write academically-valued persuasive argument essays.

The three research questions addressed in this investigation were:

1. What was the potential effect of the genre-based *Reading to Learn* instructional approach on adolescent ELLs' ability to write persuasive essays?
2. How did adolescent ELLs perceive the effect of the genre-based *Reading to Learn* instructional approach on their writing development?
3. What were the unique challenges of developing and implementing the genre-based *Reading to Learn* instructional approach with public high school ELLs in the English as a Second Language classroom?

In the Literature Review in Chapter 2, I provide a synthesis of the decades of action-oriented research that led to the development of the *Reading to Learn* methodology. In addition, I include an explanation of the theoretical frameworks that underpin this genre pedagogy. I also include the research regarding the features of academic writing development at the secondary school level from a functional linguistic perspective. Finally, I highlight the research that frames both the successes and challenges of implementing genre pedagogy as informed by a functional linguistic perspective. This extensive body of research warranted the current study.

In Methodology in Chapter 3, I describe the design of the instructional intervention and detail data sources as well as data analysis and interpretation. The series of lessons that

comprised the instructional intervention, based on the reading and writing of persuasive argument essays, are richly described in Chapters 4 through 8.

Findings are presented in Chapter 9, and these findings are positioned within the theoretical frameworks of the *Reading to Learn* methodology in the Discussion in Chapter 10.

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

Recent research has focused attention on the critical need for pedagogical practices that support adolescent English language learners (ELLs) in the development of advanced literacy practices (Christie, 2002; Gebhard & Harman, 2011; Gebhard, Demers, & Castillo-Rosenthal, 2008; Gibbons, 2002; Colombi & Schleppegrell, 2002; Schleppegrell, 2004). Given the continual growth of the adolescent ELL population in K-12 public schools in the United States (National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition, 2008), identifying and implementing theoretically-informed pedagogical practices that afford these students the opportunity to develop successful academic literacy practices carry a sense of urgency.

Genre pedagogy, underpinned by theories of language (Halliday, 1993, 1994), theories of learning (Vygotsky, 1978), and theories of sociology (Bernstein, 1990, 1996) holds great promise for supporting all students, including culturally and linguistically diverse students, in developing advanced literacy practices (Hyland, 2003, 2004; Martin, 2009; Martin & Rose, 2005; Rose, 2005, 2006; Rose & Martin, 2012).

The theoretically-informed *Reading to Learn* approach provided the framework for the current study which investigated the potential effect of this genre-based approach on the academic reading and writing practices of adolescent ELLs in the secondary English as a Second Language (ESL) urban public school context.

I begin this Literature Review with an overview of the theoretical frameworks that underpin the genre-based *Reading to Learn* framework. Following the theoretical overview, I present a description of the action-oriented research that led to the development of the *Reading to Learn* approach. Next, I describe the body of research about the linguistic features of advanced literacy practices in the disciplinary area of English. In the final section, I present the research that outlines the strengths and challenges of implementing genre pedagogy in classroom practice.

2.1 SYSTEMIC FUNCTIONAL LINGUISTICS: A SOCIAL, SEMIOTIC THEORY OF LANGUAGE

Genre pedagogy, which led to the development of the *Reading to Learn* methodology, is grounded in the theory of systemic functional linguistics (SFL), developed by Halliday and colleagues (1994, 2004) over the past six decades. Systemic functional linguistics is a fully-developed functional theory of language which grew from the study of how speakers use language in social life to construe experience. This theory is *systemic* as it foregrounds the organization of language as options for meaning and *functional* as it interprets the design of language with respect to the way people use it to live (Martin & Rose, 2008).

This social semiotic theory connects linguistic and social practices and provides a principled way to analyze any text from the point of view of three major kinds of meaning: *ideational*, *interpersonal* and *textual* (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Martin & Rose, 2008). That is, these three overarching meanings, or metafunctions of language, provide a functional lens on the meaning potential of any given text.

Thus, the meaning potential of any text can be described using an ideational lens (e.g., in terms of the content of the text and the logical way a writer connects messages in a text). A text's meaning potential can also be described using an interpersonal lens (e.g., the evaluative stance adopted by a speaker or writer and the relationship between speaker or writer and listener or reader). Finally, the meaning potential of a text can be described using a textual lens (e.g., the mode through which a text is communicated and how it is organized) (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Macken-Horarik, 2006a).

Halliday (1994) further linked three dimensions of the social contexts of language in use to the three overarching metafunctions. These three dimensions of social context, or register variables, can be thought of as the *field* of a text (e.g., what the text is about), the *tenor* of a text (e.g., the social relations between speaker and listener or writer and reader), and the *mode* of a text (e.g., the manner in which the text is communicated) (Martin, 1992, Rose & Martin, 2012). Thus, *field* maps onto ideational meanings, *tenor* onto interpersonal meanings, and *mode* onto textual meanings (Martin & Rose, 2008).

In this theory of language, *field*, *tenor*, and *mode* can be understood as the *register* of a text while *genre* can be thought of as the global social purpose of a text. That is, field, tenor, and mode are interlocking pieces at the level of genre (Martin & Rose, 2008; Rose & Martin, 2012). To illustrate, in a text in the exposition genre, the field may be whether a voter identification law should be enacted, the tenor may be a personal one that urges readers to take an action (e.g., such as a newspaper editorial), and the mode may be written (e.g., a published editorial).

As Derewianka (2003) noted, the constructs of *register* and *genre* are important in instruction designed to explore both the context in which a genre is produced and the linguistic features that construe meanings in the genre. That is, genre-based approaches, such as *Reading*

to Learn, may afford teachers the opportunity to emphasize the creation of meaning at the global and local levels of text, or the way that meaning accumulates and evolves over a stretch of text (Derewianka, 2003). In turn, “this engagement with creating and comprehending meaning within the context of a text promotes effective language learning” (Derewianka, 2003, p. 136).

Inherent to this view of genre as the way that the register variables of field, tenor, and mode interact to construe ideational, interpersonal, and textual meanings are the salient notions of focus on meaning and choice, context of situation, and context of culture (Christie & Martin, 2007; Derewianka, 2003). That is, for any context of situation (e.g., social context of the text), “language choices are in part a condition of the social activity (e.g., field), the nature of the relationships (e.g., tenor), and the role that language plays (e.g., mode). *Text* and *context* are mutually intelligible, for the one constructs the other” (Christie, 2007, p. 5).

In Halliday’s (1994, 2004) functional theory of language, there is a further interrelationship between register and grammar. In other words, the three overarching meanings created at each stage of a genre are realized through the lexical and grammatical choices that are made, which are in turn shaped by the register variables, or social context of the text (Christie, 2007; Derewianka, 2003, Martin & Rose, 2008). In turn, context of situation (e.g., social context) is shaped by the cultural practices of the culture in which a genre is enacted.

Thus, Martin and Rose (2008) proposed *genre* as a cultural stratum beyond that of *register*. That is, considering genre as a cultural practice provided a lens for considering field, tenor, and mode configurations as resources for generalizing across genres. In other words, these register variables were found to vary in systematic ways as the global patterns of meaning varied in a text (Martin & Rose, 2008).

This variation in register variables occurred within genres and across genres. To illustrate, an academically constructed argument in a scientific journal and a newspaper editorial arguing for a halt to natural gas drilling share the social purpose of persuading the reader. Yet, authors of these texts would employ language resources in distinct ways to relate the text's topic (e.g., field), to interact with the reader (e.g., tenor), and to structure the text (e.g., mode). As another example, one would expect the register variables and thus the use of language resources that functioned to construe these meanings to be quite distinct in a written lab report or a recount of a personal experience.

Figure 2 below illustrates this interpretation of the relation of language to social and cultural context:

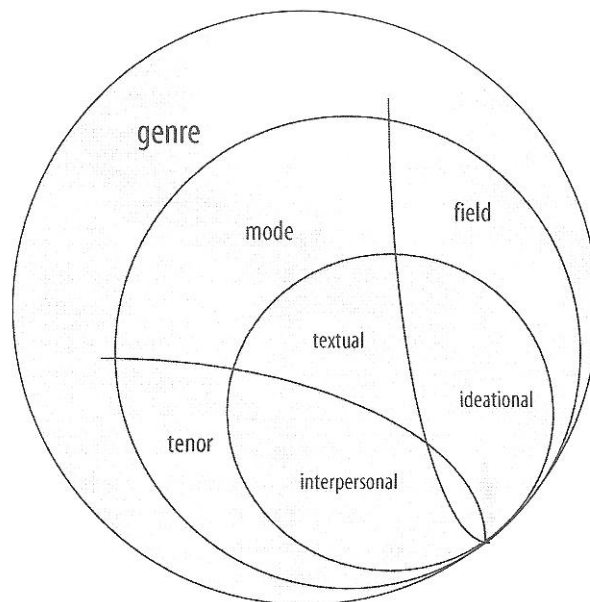


Figure 2. The Relation of Language to Social and Cultural Context (Martin & Rose, 2008, p. 17)

An understanding of the interrelationship among ideational, interpersonal, and textual meanings (e.g., text in context), field, tenor, and mode (e.g., context of situation), and genre (e.g., context of culture) is fundamental in the implementation of genre pedagogy. As Martin and

Rose (2008) emphasized, teachers need a principled way of recognizing the distinctions among genres in order to teach students to successfully produce the range of academically-valued genres in schools.

Derewianka (2003) emphasized that through learning the school-valued genres of a culture, students may learn how to participate in a new culture. That is, students can learn to appropriately make new meanings in new cultural contexts. At the level of classroom practice, genre pedagogy may support teachers in introducing a genre by first exploring its social purpose (e.g., cultural context) followed by an explanation of the way that a genre's social purpose influences the unfolding of meanings through the stages of a given genre (Derewianka, 2003).

In genre pedagogy grounded in SFL, teachers extend students' repertoire of the lexical and grammatical choices (e.g., lexicogrammar), shaped by context of situation, that are useful for moving a genre through its stages (Derewianka, 2003; Martin & Rose, 2008; Rose & Martin, 2012). Thus, teachers explain the way that these choices from the lexicogrammar are influenced by the context of situation, or register variables of a text; that is, what a text is about (e.g., its field), that status of the relationship of the interlocutors (e.g., its tenor), and the way language is used to organize the text (e.g., its mode).

Teachers connect this notion of lexicogrammatical choice as shaped by context of situation to the text's global social purpose (e.g., context of culture). Importantly, teachers further emphasize that a text's context of situation does not precisely determine the choices that can be made in constructing a given text but rather can be viewed as a starting point for suggesting that certain choices are more probable than others (e.g., Martin & Rose 2008; Rose & Martin, 2012). In short, in genre pedagogy, "the creation of a text is an ever-shifting,

interactional process in which a text and its context are mutually determining” (Derewianka, 2003, p. 141).

It is important to reemphasize that the body of research informing the development of genre pedagogy had at its core the intention to address inequities in access to the privileged genres of educational institutions (Martin & Rose, 2008). This intention to build a literacy pedagogy with a goal of social justice was strongly influenced by Basil Bernstein’s (1975, 1990, 1996, 2000) research from code theory to the pedagogic device to knowledge structures. I describe the influence of Bernstein’s work on the development of genre pedagogy in the following section.

2.2 EDUCATIONAL EQUITY AND EDUCATIONAL LINGUISTICS

The development of genre pedagogy informed by the research in the Sydney School was influenced by both Halliday’s (1978, 1993) model of language as text in context and Bernstein’s (1971, 1990, 1996) theory of the social contexts of language as *codes* (Martin & Rose, 2008).

Succinctly, Bernstein’s (1971) early work on code theory problematized the educational failure of many working-class children as stemming from lack of control over the language structures that would enable these children to explain and expand experience beyond their local and immediate context at home. Bernstein identified these children as having a *restricted code* in contrast to their middle-class peers who possessed an *elaborated code* which allowed them to use language in school-valued ways (Christie, 1999, 2007; Maton & Muller, 2007).

As Hasan (2002) explained, “Bernstein tried to show us what previous histories of discursive participation different groups of children bring to the school and how this history might impinge on learning in school given the nature of the official pedagogic systems” (Hasan, 2002, p. 547).

Over time, Bernstein’s (1975) work shifted toward exploring the way that the *elaborated code* was disseminated in schools. In this work, distinctions were made between *visible* and *invisible* pedagogies, leading to a more comprehensive theory of cultural transmission through a *pedagogic device* (Christie, 1999, 2007; Singh, 2002). The *pedagogic device* refers to “the ensemble of rules or procedures via which knowledge is converted into classroom talk and curricula” (Singh, 2002, p. 571).

In this theory, *pedagogic discourse* functioned as way of appropriating the discourses of fields of knowledge (e.g., biology, mathematics, history) and recontextualizing these discourses for teaching in schools (Christie, 1999, 2007; Maton & Muller, 2007). This recontextualization of fields of knowledge into school settings was understood as the *pedagogic device*.

In short, Bernstein (1996, 2000) argued that access to material resources and specialized knowledge in schools was unequally distributed among student groups, largely based on socioeconomic class and societal economic structures that required some students to be prepared for higher education, some to enter the workforce as skilled laborers, and others to engage in work in which on-the-job training would be sufficient. In other words, *distributive rules* regulated “who enjoys access to what forms of knowledge, and in particular, who enjoys access to the means of producing new knowledge” (Maton & Muller, 2007, p. 19).

Moreover, Bernstein (1996, 2000) argued that systems for evaluating students’ acquisition of knowledge determined students’ progress through a school system and whether

students would continue to university studies, vocational training, or neither. Thus, these evaluative practices created hierarchies of success and failure among students, placing students in a continuum from less successful to more successful and identifying the source of success or failure as within the student (Rose & Martin, 2012).

This notion of the unequal distribution and evaluation of knowledge in schools among student groups based on socioeconomic factors and societal labor needs intersected with educational linguists' goal to afford all students access to and control over cultural genres of power (Martin & Rose, 2008; Rose & Martin, 2012). As Martin and Rose (2008) elaborated, control over the range of genres of power in a culture (e.g., in science, industry, or administration)

depends on specialized educational pathways, and access to these pathways depends largely on our position in relation to socioeconomic power. In this kind of social complex, the scope of our control over genres of power in turn conditions our status ranking in social hierarchies our claim to authority in institutional fields, and our prominence in public life (Martin & Rose, 2008, p. 19).

Rose and Martin (2012) emphasized that a principal goal of genre pedagogy was to democratize educational outcomes by making the distribution of knowledge in schools more equitable. Specifically, genre pedagogy was designed to “give teachers the tools they need to overcome the inequality of access, participation and outcomes in their classes” (Rose & Martin, 2012, p. 6).

This goal to distribute knowledge more equitably through genre pedagogy intersected with Bernstein's (1996, 2000) distinctions between the commonsense knowledge of everyday life and the knowledge structures of academic institutions (Rose & Martin, 2012). Bernstein termed the local, context specific knowledge acquired in families and communities as *horizontal*

discourse and the academic knowledge of educational institutions as *vertical discourse* (Maton & Muller, 2007; Rose & Martin, 2012).

Vertical discourse was defined as two types of knowledge structures: *hierarchical knowledge structures* (e.g., sciences) and *horizontal knowledge structures* (e.g., humanities) (Christie, 2007). Rose and Martin (2012) argued that these *vertical discourses* were recontextualized in secondary schools as curriculum subjects that prepare only some students for university study. That is, these students benefited from a *visible pedagogy* which focused on the explicit transmission of knowledge, skills, and values.

In contrast, other “less successful” students were often tracked into ability groups in which students were given less difficult tasks at a slower pace of learning. These students were subjected to an *invisible pedagogy* in which criteria for academic success and in-depth exposure to *vertical discourses* were “hidden” from view (Rose & Martin, 2012).

Significantly, Rose and Martin (2012) posit that genre pedagogy has its roots in the democratic principle that all students need to accomplish the same level of instructional tasks and that teachers need strategies to support students equally. Thus, a key focus in the development of genre pedagogy has been to describe the written genres through which knowledge is presented and learned across school curricula.

In the following sections, I describe the extensive action-oriented research, grounded in systemic functional linguistics (SFL), which informed the development of genre pedagogy over time.

2.3 GENRE PEDAGOGY

Genre pedagogy emerged from large-scale action research projects across three decades conducted by educational linguists in Australia in various educational contexts. This extensive research came to be known as the “Sydney School” project (Martin, 2000, Rose, 2009, Rose, 2011c). The Sydney School project comprised three major phases: (1) the design of writing pedagogy in the 1980s that focused on school-based genres in primary schools, (2) the extension of the writing pedagogy to genres across subject areas in secondary schools in the 1990s, and (3) the integration of reading and writing with teaching practice across school levels beginning in the late 1990s (Rose, 2009).

The research of this latter phase led to the development of the *Reading to Learn* framework which informed the design of the current study. To situate the development of the *Reading to Learn* framework’s in iterations of genre pedagogy over time, I outline the research in each phase of the Sydney School project beginning with the *Language and Social Power* project.

2.3.1 The language and social power phase of the Sydney School project

The concept of genre as a “staged goal-oriented social process” (Martin, 1999) grew out of the first phase of the Sydney School project in primary schools. This research, termed the *Language and Social Power* project, aimed to apply Halliday’s (1975, 1978) theory of language as a social semiotic system to defining the demands of school-based writing from a linguistic perspective.

That is, extensive functional linguistic analyses of the kinds of texts that students were expected to write in the primary school led to the identification of the typical genres of the

primary school (e.g., recount, anecdote, observation/comment, narrative, description, report, procedure) (Martin & Rose, 2005; Rose, 2009).

Martin's (1999) notion of genres as staged, goal oriented social processes became a central tenet of genre pedagogy. Martin (1999) characterized genres as *social* given that writers shape their texts for particular readers, as *goal-oriented* given that a text unfolds toward its social purpose, and as *staged* given that more than one step is typically required to achieve a whole text in a particular genre (Rose, 2009). Thus, the notion of genre as distinguished by recurrent language patterns at the local and global levels emerged from this early research in the Sydney School project.

Furthermore, this early research in the Sydney School revealed that most students lacked an explicit understanding of the criteria for writing in school-valued ways and instead produced writing that was simply "spoken language written down" (Rose & Martin, 2012, p. 45). Consequently, the mapping of written genres and their stages that emerged from the research during the *Language and Social Power* project led to the design of an explicit teaching/learning cycle to support writing pedagogy (Rothery, 1989, 1994).

The goal in the design of this early teaching/learning cycle (Rothery, 1989, 1994) was to develop a specific metalanguage that teachers and students could use to talk about writing (Rose, 2009). Rothery (1994) grounded the development of the teaching/learning cycle in Halliday's (1975, 2003) and Painter's (1986) work on spoken language development. That is, Rothery aimed to make learning to write a comparable activity to learning to speak (Rose, 2009). Figure 3 below illustrates the initial genre-based teaching/learning cycle:

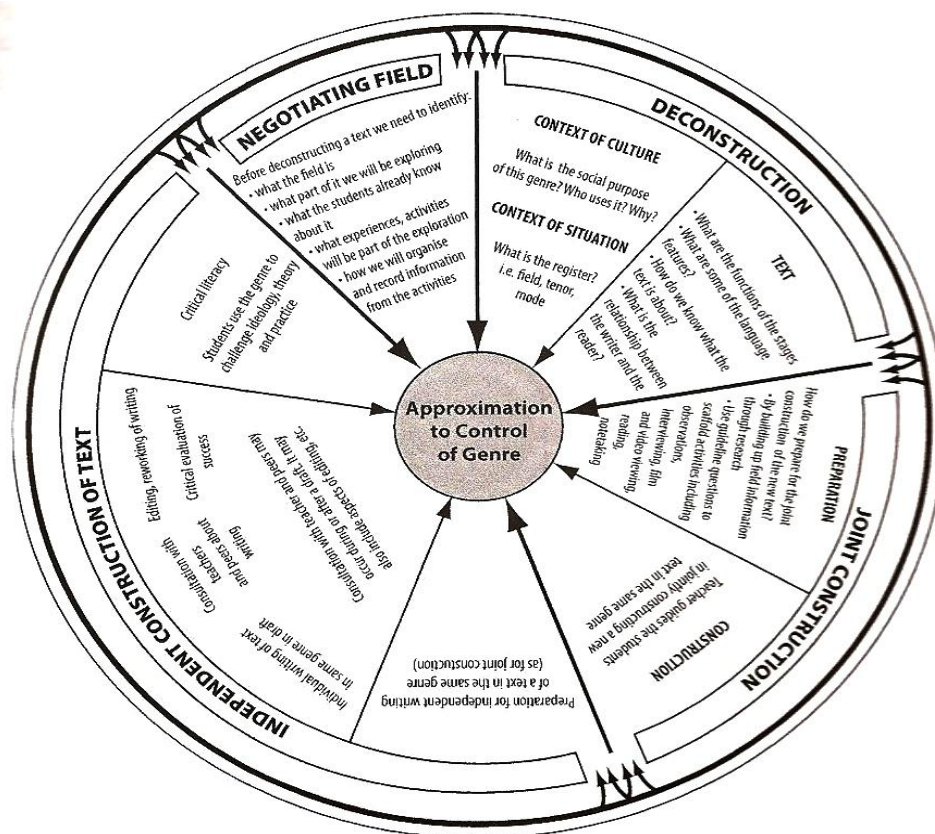


Figure 3. Rothery's Teaching/Learning Cycle (Rose & Martin, 2012, p. 65)

As Figure 3 illustrates, this initial teaching/learning cycle comprised four main stages (e.g., Deconstruction, Joint Construction, Individual Construction, and Negotiating Field). Succinctly, in the Deconstruction stage, teachers guided students to recognize the cultural context, staging, and key linguistic features of model texts in a particular genre.

In the Joint Construction stage, teachers guided the whole class to construct another text in the same genre. In the Individual Construction stage, students wrote a third text in the same genre on their own (Rose, 2009). The Negotiating Field stage emphasized the importance of shared experience of the subject matter when teaching genre, which supported teachers in developing thematic units with a focus on genre writing (Rose & Martin, 2012).

Over time, this foundational research expanded into investigations of the reading and writing demands across subject areas in the secondary school. During this second phase of the

Sydney School research, termed the *Write it Right* project (Christie & Martin, 1997; Veel and Coffin, 1996; Veel, 2006), educational linguists developed linguistic descriptions of the genres students were expected to read and write in the secondary school.

2.3.2 The write it right phase of the Sydney School project

These descriptions of secondary school genres and their discourse patterns which emerged from the *Write it Right* research of the Sydney School project included specific types of genres within families of genres. For example, Text Response genres included Review, Interpretation, and Critical Response genres; Argument genres included Exposition and Discussion genres (Rose, 2009).

Specifically, the *Write it Right* phase focused on embedding genre writing in secondary school subject areas with careful attention to the nature of disciplinary knowledge from a linguistic perspective (Rose & Martin, 2012). That is, this research highlighted the notion that ways of conveying knowledge in each disciplinary area made different demands on the ways language was used to unfold meanings in the written genres of a particular disciplinary area. For instance, language functioned differently to construe meanings in a procedural text in science than in an historical recount in history (Rose, 2009).

The teaching/learning cycle was also further refined during the *Write it Right* phase of the Sydney School project. Figure 4 below illustrates this refinement of the teaching/learning cycle as a result of research in the secondary school context:

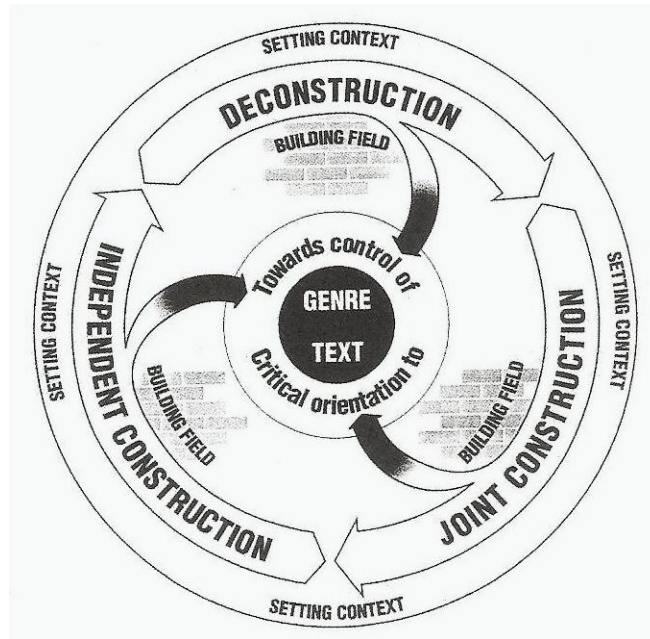


Figure 4. Write It Right Teaching/Learning Cycle (Martin & Rose, 2005, p. 252)

In this iteration of the teaching/learning cycle, building field and setting context were positioned as salient notions in each stage of the cycle. The core notion at the cycle's center had also shifted from "approximation to control of genre" to "towards control of and critical orientation to" genre and text (Macken-Horarik, 1998). As Rose and Martin (2012) noted, this refinement of the central goal reflected the bidirectional relation between genre and language; that is, that genres consisted of meanings construed by language and that these meanings shaped the genre.

Throughout the *Write It Right* research, educational linguists worked closely with secondary teachers to map the major genres that students needed to control in order to attain academic success in secondary school (Rose & Martin, 2012). Relatedly, learner pathways were mapped out in spiral curricula in each subject area.

These spiral curricula were designed to support teachers in guiding students to write successfully in school-based genres by moving from everyday to academic discourse. To use

history as an example, the spiral curriculum focused on writing the historical genres spiraling from story to history, recount to explanation, sequential to factorial, explanation to argument, to exposition through discussion (Coffin, 1997, 2004).

Thus, the *Write it Right* action research aimed to develop teachers' skills in both text analysis and writing pedagogy. That is, teachers learned to select and analyze texts in a given genre from their own curriculum from the perspective of the social purpose of the genre and its stages and phases. Teachers then learned to link this genre focus to their disciplinary knowledge (Rose & Martin, 2012). In other words, disciplinary content was presented through a close examination of the way that language functioned to construe meaning in the genres of a particular disciplinary area.

I provide a brief illustration of this concept. A history teacher could select an exposition as a model text in the argument genre family. The teacher would present the purpose of writing in the exposition genre as arguing for a point of view. The stages of the genre would be named as *thesis*, *arguments*, and *reiteration* and the phases denoted as *introduction*, *body paragraphs*, and *conclusion*. Mapped onto this schematic structure would be the disciplinary content, or field, of the selected model text (e.g., advocating for a revamping of gun control laws).

Thus, in the genre-based teaching/learning cycle employed in the *Write it Right* project, building field and setting context were embedded in a range of activities in order to support students in building up content for a specific genre and learning more about the contexts in which the genre was deployed (Martin & Rose, 2005).

A central tenet in this genre-based literacy teaching approach was the notion of "guidance through interaction in the context of shared experience" (Martin & Rose, 2005, p. 252). This notion of guidance through interaction in the context of shared experience emerged from

Painter's (1986) research about the role of interaction in learning to talk and learning to write and Halliday's (1975) work on spoken language development.

Martin and Rose (2005) explained the integration of this principle of guided interaction in the context of shared experience into the teaching/learning cycle employed in the *Write it Right* research in secondary schools:

The model brings various aspects of 'guidance through interaction in the context of shared experience' to the writing process. Shared experience is engendered by establishing clear generic goals, building field and setting context; interaction is built into teaching and learning, in the design of various field building activities and the Joint Construction phase in particular; and the teacher is regularly placed in an authoritative position as far as guidance is concerned – whether modeling the genre, recontextualizing spoken student discourse as writing when scribing or scaffolding field building activities (Martin & Rose, 2005, p. 253).

The overall goal of the implementation of the genre-based teaching/learning cycle during the *Write it Right* phase of the Sydney School project was to provide all students with access to the language resources for successfully writing academic texts that would be valued by teachers and on writing assessments (Martin & Rose, 2005). However, a need for more explicit attention to reading arose during the implementation of this genre pedagogy in secondary schools.

Throughout the instructional tasks embedded in all stages of the teaching/learning cycle, students were learning to read not only disciplinary content but also the language patterns (e.g., discourse patterns and grammatical features) associated with each particular school-based genre. The implementation of the teaching/learning cycle was complicated by students' differing abilities to read the model texts selected for deconstruction during the *Write it Right* research phase of the Sydney School project (Martin & Rose, 2005).

Significantly, the educational linguists conducting this research noted that the intensive focus on writing embedded in the teaching/learning cycle did not provide sufficient support for

students from oral cultural backgrounds (e.g., Indigenous Australian students) to read the model texts. Given these researchers' core commitment to redistributing academic success across the student population, this lack of reading success for many culturally and linguistically diverse students represented a problem to be addressed through the action-oriented research (Martin & Rose, 2005).

Addressing this difficulty with reading the model texts experienced by many students led to the third phase of research in the Sydney School project and thereby to the development of the *Reading to Learn* framework.

2.3.3 The reading to learn phase of the Sydney School project

The third phase in the action-oriented research of Sydney School project focused on teaching students to read texts across the curricula at all levels of schooling and to use what they had learned from reading in their writing (Martin & Rose, 2005). In this phase of research, genre pedagogy was recontextualized to support teachers and students in developing a metalanguage for deconstructing the discourse and language patterns of model texts.

Martin and Rose (2005) explained that this effort to prepare teachers to teach all students to read grade-level texts in each disciplinary area and to successfully write assessment tasks required a reconsideration of the ways that Halliday's functional language model (1994, 1996) was applied to analysis and teaching of pedagogic texts.

Succinctly, Halliday's model of language (1994, 1996) is a stratified one in which graphology, lexicogrammar, and discourse semantics are viewed as different perspectives of the same phenomenon. Figure 5 below illustrates this stratified model of language.

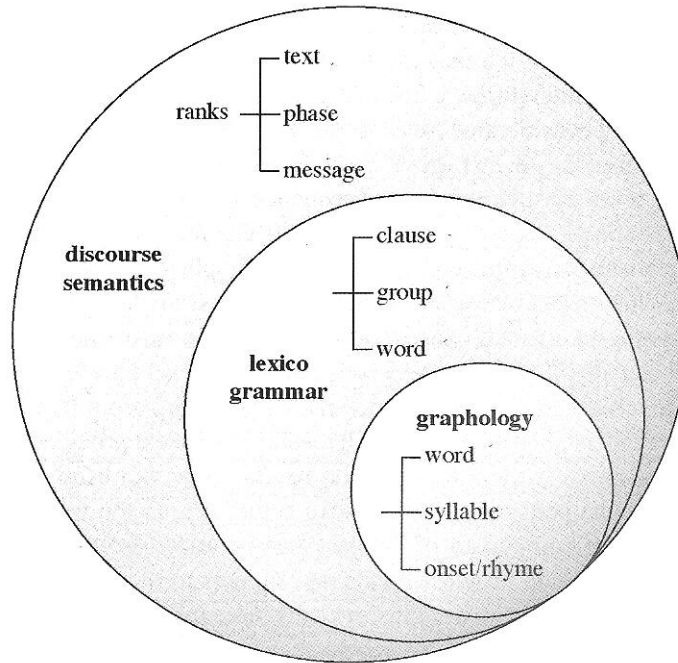


Figure 6. Halliday's (1994, 1996) Stratified Model of Language (Martin & Rose, 2005, p. 257)

In this model of language, decoding and predicting sequences of meanings are fused. That is, decoding and meaning-making are thought to occur through a fusion of the stratum 'above' (e.g., text or discourse semantics) with the stratum in the center (e.g., wording or lexicogrammar) and the stratum 'below' (e.g., phonology and graphology) (Martin & Rose, 2005).

In other words, teaching reading is conceptualized in this model as situating the explicit teaching of the sound-letter correspondences and spelling patterns necessary for the processing of words, phrases, and sentences within recurrent instances of meaningful discourse.

Working from Halliday's (1996) model of language, Martin and Rose (2005) sought to decomplexify the task of reading which was thought to involve the continual recognition, prediction, and recollection of patterns at each stratum of graphology, lexicogrammar, and discourse. This work resulted in the development of the *Learning to Read: reading to learn* methodology.

In this methodology, Martin and Rose (2005) posited that text comprehension began with students' recognizing a text's genre and field and depended on students having enough experience to interpret the field as it unfolded through the text. Martin and Rose built a strategy of orienting students to the genre and field of a text prior to reading the text on the research about parent-child reading interactions (cf. Cloran, 1999, 2000; Hassan, 1989, 1991) in which parents spent considerable time talking children through the field of stories well outside of the children's experience.

That is, Martin and Rose (2005) posited that the strategy of using language that students could readily understand (e.g., in commonsense terms from everyday knowledge) in order to summarize the sequence of a text's field as it unfolded through its generic phases could be applied at any level of schooling. Martin and Rose argued that the reading task could be further demystified by the teacher's reading the text aloud. In turn, the scaffolding provided by reading aloud would diminish the struggle of weaker readers to recognize words from their letter patterns and to understand what was going on in each phase of the text, thus allowing them to attend to meaning.

This research in the third phase of the Sydney School led to the development of the *Reading to Learn* cycle, a scaffolded interaction cycle that enabled teachers to "carefully plan a discussion around the language features in a text, to think through which language features would be focused on at each step, how the teacher would prepare students to identify them and how they would elaborate on them" (Martin & Rose, 2005, p. 259).

Implementing genre pedagogy presupposes teachers' knowledge about language (KAL). That is, teachers must understand the way that language resources function to create meanings in the academic genres of their disciplinary area. To illustrate the importance of this knowledge

about language in implementing genre pedagogy, I turn to the research on the linguistic features that are markers of advanced literacy practices in the disciplinary area of English.

2.4 THE LINGUISTIC FEATURES OF ADVANCED LITERACY PRACTICES IN SUBJECT ENGLISH

An extensive body of research richly described the linguistic markers of advanced literacy practices in the disciplinary area of English. This research, grounded in systemic functional linguistics, (Christie, 1994, 2002, 2012; Macken-Horarik, 1996, 2002, 2006a; Schleppegrell, 2001, 2004) highlighted both the importance of teachers' knowledge about language (KAL) for implementing genre pedagogy and the usefulness of functional linguistic analysis in analyzing students' written texts in a given genre.

This body of research proposed that knowledge about the linguistic markers of advanced literacy practices was crucial both for teaching students to write successfully in school-valued genres as well as for analyzing students' written texts. Analyzing students' texts from a functional linguistic perspective enabled teachers to design instruction that afforded students opportunities to move their writing from a "spoken-style" written text to an academically-valued one (Christie, 2002; Schleppegrell, 2001). The development of academic writing competency was considered to be critical for secondary school students if these students were to access post-secondary educational opportunities (Colombi & Schleppegrell, 2002; Rose & Martin, 2012).

Pointedly, the challenge to develop academic writing competency in English is particularly acute for English language learners (ELLs). This challenge may be exacerbated by

ELLs' lack of knowledge about the lexical, grammatical, and discourse features of academic language (Crosson, Matsumura, Correnti, & Arlotta-Guerrero, 2012; Christie, 2002, 2012; Schleppegrell, 2001, 2004). Celce-Murcia (2002) argued that raising students' conscious awareness of how to use grammatical resources accurately and appropriately "is important for language acquisition in general and for the development of advanced literacy skills in adolescent and adult learners in particular" (Celce-Murcia, 2002, p. 143).

Relatedly, Christie (2002) posited that secondary school students must gain control over advanced literacy practices in order to participate in post-secondary studies. Specifically, Christie identified the capacity to create abstraction, generalization, and argument as features of advanced literacy. The identification of these particular features arose from the analyses of narratives, critical literary pieces, and opinion pieces written by primary and secondary students, including an adolescent ELL, attending Australian schools.

In this research, Christie (2002) pinpointed several specific linguistic resources that secondary students must control in order to abstract, generalize, and argue with language. These linguistic resources included the use of expanded nominal structures, clause embedding to expand nominal structures, the use of adverbs to express judgments, and the use of thematic progression, referents, and conjunctions to build overall organization of text.

To further explain, the use of complex nominal structures (e.g., nominalization) enabled students to condense a great deal of information for presentation in an academic written text. This use of nominalization to condense ideas differed markedly from spoken language use (Christie, 2002; Schleppegrell, 2001, 2004). For example, stating, "I saw an ad on TV that said if you buy these new diet pills, you won't feel hungry anymore so you won't eat so much and then you'll start to lose weight," could be recontextualized in an academically-valued way

beginning with a complex nominal structure such as, “*The use of a newly marketed medication to suppress appetite* may result in weight loss.”

Clause embedding such as, “Young women *who consistently used this new appetite suppressant*,” a resource for expanding nominal structures, was identified as another marker of the development of advanced literacy practices (Christie, 2002). Equally, the use of adverbs to express opinions and/or judgments marked advanced literacy skills. To continue with the current example, adverbs could be employed to express the author’s opinion authoritatively in a written statement such as, “*Clearly*, using this appetite suppressant *correctly* and *consistently* will produce permanent weight-loss results!”

Christie (2002) and Christie and Dreyfus (2007) identified thematic progression as another linguistic marker of advanced literacy practices. Thematic progression refers to an author’s choice to situate the information presented at the end of a clause as the starting point, or message, of the following clause (Christie & Dreyfus, 2007; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004).

This linguistic resource serves to organize a text as well as to foreground what the author deems to be important. Thematic progression could be employed by following the example sentence above (e.g., “Clearly, using this appetite suppressant correctly and consistently will produce permanent weight-loss results”) with a sentence such as, “*The achievement of permanent weight loss* leads to reduced risk of disease.”

In addition to thematic progression, control over conjunctive resources and referents indicated advanced literacy practices (Christie, 2002; Schleppegrell, 2004, 2006). For example, these resources could be employed in a subsequent sentence to the example sentence above such as, “*Moreover, this* reduced risk of illness contributes to a happier and healthier life.”

Many of the linguistic resources that Christie (2002) richly described represented the notion of *grammatical metaphor*. This salient feature of academic literacy practices is described in the following section.

2.4.1 Grammatical metaphor

Schleppegrell (2004) defined *grammatical metaphor* as “a construct of functional grammar that is key to understanding the nature of academic registers” (Schleppegrell, 2004, p. 71).

Grammatical metaphor contrasts with the congruent expressions used in everyday language. That is, in everyday speech, “things” are typically realized in nouns, “actions” are realized in verbs, and relations between language elements are realized in conjunctions.

For example, a congruent expression would be, “The cotton gin was invented, and this led to an inadvertent increase in slavery because the cotton could be cleaned and readied for sale more quickly.” In contrast, grammatical metaphor is the expression of concepts in an incongruent way (Halliday, 1994). That is, grammatical elements such as nouns, verbs, and conjunctions perform a function that is distinct from the one with which they are typically associated.

Thus, employing grammatical metaphor, the above example sentence about the cotton gin could be incongruently expressed as, “The invention of the cotton gin and the subsequent capacity for cleaning cotton to be sold more quickly inadvertently led to an increase in slavery.” In this clause complex, nominalization (e.g., converting a verb to function as a noun) was employed to express the processes of “to invent,” “to clean,” and “to increase” as nouns. As well, the conjunction *because* was eliminated and expressed instead by the causal link *led*.

Halliday (1993) and Christie (2002) defined grammatical metaphor as the key for entering into secondary education as it unlocks the language that expresses discipline-based and technical meanings. That is, “through grammatical metaphor, ‘everyday’ meanings are construed in new ways that enable the abstraction, technicality, and development of arguments that characterize advanced literacy tasks” (Schleppegrell, 2004, p. 72).

Christie (2012) emphasized the importance of the notion of grammatical metaphor as a tool for expressing scholarship and ideas in written discourse. Thus, the resource of grammatical metaphor was important for school learning. Moreover, Christie’s (2002, 2012) extensive functional linguistic analyses of students’ written texts revealed grammatical metaphor as an important marker of literacy development that should occur in late childhood to adolescence.

Notably, however, these analyses revealed that many students did not gain sufficient control over the resource of grammatical metaphor or of the discourse this language resource functioned to construct (Christie, 2012). Rose and Martin (2012) identified learning to deconstruct incongruent language (e.g., grammatical metaphor) during reading and to employ incongruent structures when writing as the most important task faced by students in secondary school.

That is, the control of grammatical metaphor in reading and writing was thought to be crucial in supporting students to understand the increasingly complex discourses of school-based genres across disciplines. Thus, “teachers need an understanding of the nature of grammatical metaphor and its significance in shaping meanings in written discourse” (Christie, 2012, p. 28).

An extensive body of research has supported and expanded these descriptions of grammatical metaphor and other linguistic features that function to construe meanings in the

academically-valued genres of the discipline of English (e.g., narrative, response to literature, critical literary analysis, exposition). I describe this body of research in the following section.

2.4.2 Related research about the linguistic features of advanced literacy practices

A wide body of research has pinpointed the linguistic resources employed in the construction of texts in secondary school English (e.g., Christie, 2002, 2012; Macken-Horarik, 1996, 2006a, 2006c; Schleppegrell, 2001, 2004, 2007). For example, Schleppegrell (1998) identified relational verbs (e.g., verbs of being and having), expanded nominal structures, and clause themes as grammatical resources that were functional for writing descriptions.

Similarly, conjunctive links, reference chains, causal links, and attitudinal expressions were identified as linguistic resources that function to develop arguments (Coffin, 2004; Schleppegrell, 2006). Relatedly, Schleppegrell's (1996) analyses of university-level ELLs' texts from a large database revealed that these students' texts contained twice the number of *because clauses* than native-English speakers' texts. The ELLs' had also employed *because* in writing in ways associated with the registers of interactional speech.

For example, Schleppegrell (1996) explained that *because clauses* were often used in speech to indicate a knowledge base for a speaker's assertions, to introduce independent segments, and to display links between sections of discourse. Yet, other linguistic resources functioned to achieve these purposes in academic writing. For instance, in academic writing nominalizations functioned to condense information and ideas. As well, propositions could be expressed through verbs that conveyed semantic relationships through prepositional phrasing (e.g., the ground water contamination that may occur through natural gas drilling can adversely affect the health of a community).

This research suggested that the language resources that functioned to introduce an author's stance, establish causal connections, and organize discourse effectively in an academic way remained "invisible" even to university-level ELLs when not explicitly taught (Schelppegrell, 1996).

Through functional linguistic analyses of the ideational meanings construed in interpretations of narrative written by tenth grade students on English exams across a ten-year period, Macken-Horarik (2006b) identified the linguistic resources that functioned to create *symbolic abstraction*. Macken-Horarik defined *symbolic abstraction* as "a connection between concrete (often recurring) motifs in a text and the abstract thematic preoccupations of its author" (Macken-Horarik, 2006b, p. 103).

In Macken-Horarik's (2006b) analyses, only students who achieved *symbolic abstraction* had received A-range evaluations of their work. Macken-Horarik identified metaphor as the pathway to *symbolic abstraction* and *relational transitivity* (e.g., the means of comparing one thing to another) as a powerful linguistic resource for creating metaphor. In these successful, A-range texts, students had employed relational patterns such as, "This **is** that," "This **is about** that," "This **has** the quality of that," "This **is like** that," "This **deals with** that" or "This **concerns** that" to construe *symbolic abstraction* (Macken-Horarik, 2006b, p. 112).

In addition to *relational transitivity*, Macken-Horarik (2006b) extensive analyses revealed that A-range responses also employed the linguistic resources of *elaboration* and *Theme* and *News*. *Elaboration* was proposed as a useful linguistic resource for exploring logical meanings, or semantic relationships between clauses (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). Macken-Horarik explained *elaboration* as expanding on a point about the text through further specification or description of a message in the text.

Macken-Horarik (2006b) noted that students who produced B- or C-range responses used *extension* strategies (e.g., adding details through ‘and-and-and’ links) or *enhancement* strategies (e.g., reviewing the events of a story or explaining reasons why a character did something) rather than *elaboration* strategies to restate, clarify, refine, or further characterize an idea or concept already introduced by the student author.

Finally, Macken-Horarik’s (2006b) analyses of ideational meanings in this corpus of texts revealed that student authors of A-range texts had selected either semiotic or experiential Themes (Halliday, 1994) as starting points for their message. Following Halliday (1994), Macken-Horarik defined *Theme* as “the ‘peg’ on which the message is hung which is realized through first position in the clause” (Macken-Horarik, 2006b, p. 115). Thus, student authors of A-range texts chose the name of the story (e.g., ‘Click’ by Judith Stamper) or the name of a main character (e.g., Jenny) as the preferred starting point for each clause rather than first or second person Themes.

A final linguistic marker of academically-successful interpretations of narrative in this research was the student authors’ choice of *News* throughout the text. Simply put, in A-grade responses, the *News* that student authors positioned at the end of a clause contained the students’ interpretations of the narrative’s motif (e.g., Jenny’s flight from reality) (Macken-Horarik, 2006b).

Macken-Horarik (2006b) noted that the successful student authors’ selections of *News* throughout their interpretation provided insights into what these student authors viewed as significant in the narrative. Taken together, the selections of *Theme* and *News* revealed the movement in the student authors’ texts from “material phenomena (e.g., text or characters) to abstraction (e.g., psycho-symbolic significance)” (Macken-Horarik, 2006b, p. 117).

Interestingly, in earlier research using this same corpus of tenth grade student texts, Macken-Horarik (2006a) analyzed several texts from the point of view of Bernstein's (1975) code theory and suggested that some students were able to recognize what the open-ended text prompt required of them while others were not able to do so. That is, "recognizing and realizing task requirements appropriately is not, in the first instance, a matter of how literate a student is but of whether the student has acquired 'right' coding orientation" (Macken-Horarik, 2006a, p. 3).

Macken-Horarik (2006a) elaborated that in Bernstein's (1975) theory, the principles by which students interpreted the implicit requirements of tasks in educational contexts were also social rather than only linguistic in origin. That is, "what Bernstein called 'coding orientations' are an outcome of the interactive practices into which students have been socialized" (Macken-Horarik, 2006a, p. 5). Thus, Macken-Horarik argued that, as a result of social and pedagogic practices both in and out of school, some students may be better prepared to recognize a writing task's requirements and create a successful response while the criteria for success remained "hidden" from view for many other students.

As Macken-Horarik (2006a) concluded, "This is where teaching is so important and where those students who need assistance could be advantaged by a visible pedagogy able to develop highly valued orientations to meaning in English" (Macken-Horarik, 2006a, p. 27).

In the following section, I turn to the research that both suggests the potential of genre pedagogy for making the criteria for success in school-valued genres "visible" to all students and pinpoints potential challenges of implementing this approach in school contexts.

2.5 GENRE PEDAGOGY: STRENGTHS AND CHALLENGES

2.5.1 The potential of genre pedagogy

The foremost goal of the Sydney School project was social justice in the form of educational equity for all students (e.g., Christie, 2007, Martin & Rose, 2008; Macken-Horarik, 2006b). This vision of social justice through equitable educational practices had its roots in the ongoing “dialogue” that grew between two researchers whose lifetime work revolved around this shared goal, the linguist, MAK Halliday, and the sociologist, Basal Bernstein (Christie, 2007).

These visionary researchers inspired the extensive action-oriented research of the Sydney School project that was situated in classrooms with diverse students across educational contexts. This widespread research culminated in genre pedagogy, a pedagogical approach grounded in a fully-developed, richly described language-based theory of teaching and learning (Rose & Martin, 2012).

A growing number of researchers have promoted the potential of genre pedagogy for supporting teachers in their daily work to help all students develop advanced literacy practices, including those for whom English is not a first language (Colombi & Shlepppegrell, 2002; Christies, 2001; Christie & Dreyfus, 2007; Fang & Schlepppegrell, 2008; Fang & Wang, 2011; Hammond & Gibbons, 2005; Hyland, 2007; Rose & Martin, 2012).

Christie & Dreyfus (2007) conducted a study in which secondary school students’ texts in the thematic interpretation genre in English were analyzed using a functional linguistic approach. Students were given the writing prompt, “Compare how the composers of two texts, ‘Frankenstein’ and ‘Buffy the Vampire Slayer’ have used the Gothic to convey their stories” (Christie & Dreyfus, 2007, p. 237) and asked to complete an in-class writing task.

One aim of this study was to suggest pedagogical interventions that may improve the teaching of writing. One student's text was deemed unsuccessful by his teacher, yet the teacher's feedback was not useful for supporting this student in improving his text. The teacher commented, "You have not clearly discussed the Gothic elements, you obviously have some idea, however, this is not clear" (Christie & Dreyfus, 2007, p. 243).

Christie and Dreyfus's (2007) analysis revealed that this student wrote a weak thematic position, referred to as *Macro-Theme*, which did not offer abstractions related directly to the Gothic elements. Thus, he was unable to support his thematic position through logical elaborations, referred to as *Hyper-Themes*, in subsequent paragraphs in a structured way. Instead, this student "retold" each text rather than using text details as evidence to elaborate on a point presented for discussion.

A member of the research team in this study subsequently worked with this student to map his text onto a genre template with the stages identified. Each stage and its function were explained to him, and the student and researcher worked together to rewrite his text. On the following assignment, this student's teacher wrote, "B+ Well, you've let the secret out—you can do very good work! This is the minimum standard I expect from now on" (Christie & Dreyfus, 2007, p. 245).

As a result of this study, Christie and Dreyfus (2007) advocated several steps for teaching the writing of thematic interpretive genres. These steps included discussing requirements that may be implicit in the writing prompt and identifying and deconstructing an example of a model text in the target genre. In this deconstruction, the teacher should name the stages of the target genre and discuss their meaning and purpose extensively.

Further teacher recommendations included studying the organization of the model text and the importance of the overarching theme, or Macro-Theme. The teacher should discuss how to use language to create abstraction in the Macro-Theme. Next, the teacher and students should discuss Hyper-Theme possibilities and how to develop these supporting ideas in each paragraph in a way that reflects back to the Macro-Theme while looking forward to the following paragraph. Finally, a possible response to the writing prompt may be jointly constructed as an additional scaffold for students who were still developing control over the genre's language features and patterns (Christie & Dreyfus, 2007).

In a related study of classroom discourse analysis, Christie (2001) examined the way that an eleventh grade English teacher prepared his students to write an argument essay based on the prompt, "How do role models on television influence children's socialization?" After providing students with some background information on the topic, the teacher provided students with some advice about using topic sentences in each paragraph and linking sentences together.

Notably, however, the teacher provided very little information about the overall rhetorical structure of an argument essay. Christie (2001) noted that the steps for constructing an argument essay were not discussed. As well, the teacher did not discuss how to effectively create a thesis statement or what the linguistic evidence of a well-organized argument in support of the thesis would be.

In talking with one student about his writing, the teacher in this study said, "There's nothing wrong with what you've said. It's just the way you've expressed it" (Christie, 2001, p. 321). Christie (2001) argued that this type of feedback left the linguistic features of the target text that functioned to create a successful text unexplained and "invisible" to students.

Relatedly, Schleppegrell (1998) argued that teachers could help students learn to use the grammatical structures that were functional for creating texts in a given genre by attending to these language features as texts in the genre were read and written during classroom instruction. In turn, this attention to the lexical and grammatical options that functioned to construe particular genres may support second language learners in gaining control over academic discourse comprehension and production.

Schleppegrell (1998) made pedagogical suggestions after conducting functional linguistic analyses of students' written descriptions in science class, recommending that teachers could use knowledge about the linguistic resources that function to construe descriptions in the following manner:

Teachers who assign scientific descriptions can provide practice with the forms of relational verbs and demonstrate how noun phrases can be expanded through relative clauses or prepositional phrases to specify or elaborate meanings. Teachers can point out to students the power of the initiating noun phrase for contextualizing the description, discussing the meanings that are conveyed by different choices. Teachers can ask students to focus on verb tense choice, pointing out how experienced writers use particular verb tenses and what kinds of meanings such choices represent (Schleppegrell, 1998, p. 206).

Fang and Wang (2011) argued that language analysis from a functional perspective was a useful way of systematically evaluating the language choices in students' written texts in order to provide helpful feedback about how effectively a student's choices have enabled the student to present information, convey perspectives, and create discursive flow. That is, teachers' knowledge about the discourse features and language resources that functioned to construe ideational, interpersonal, and textual meanings may support teachers in assessing students' writing in a way that may lead to improved academic writing outcomes for students.

Fang and Wang (2011) further explained that teachers needed to equip themselves with this deep knowledge about how language functions to create meanings in different genres and

registers in order to identify the most salient relevant linguistic features for evaluating a particular text. In turn, this type of language-based evaluation can be used to provide students with systematic linguistic evidence for the way their writing was evaluated. Moreover, Fang and Wang posited that linguistically-informed assessment of students' texts may usefully inform subsequent instruction or necessary remediation.

Other researchers have echoed the call for teachers to possess knowledge about the discourse features and language patterns (e.g., lexicogrammatical choices) of school-based genres in order to employ dynamic ways of supporting students in exploring how contexts of culture and contexts of situation map onto one another in reading and writing activities in school (Gebhard, Demers, & Castillo-Rosenthal, 2008; Hyland, 2003, 2007; Martin, 2009; Schleppegrell, 2012).

This increased focus on the way the discourse and language patterns across the genres that students read and write in school responded to “changing views of discourse and of learning to write which incorporate better understandings of how language is structured to achieve social purposes in particular contexts of use” (Hyland, 2007, p. 148).

As Schleppegrell (2012) succinctly stated, “Every subject is taught and learned through language, and teachers, without good knowledge about how language makes meaning in the subjects they teach, cannot provide all children with robust opportunities to learn” (Schleppegrell, 2012, p. 416). In particular, educational linguists have noted the potential for genre pedagogy to address the achievement gap between mainstream English-speaking students and ELLs (Achugar, Schleppegrell, & Oteiza, 2007; Brisk & Zisselsberger, 2011; Fang, 2006, 2008; Gebhard, Harman, & Seger, 2007; Schleppegrell & de Oliveira, 2006).

Despite this call for increased teacher knowledge about the linguistic features of school-based genres and the research around the potential for genre pedagogy to support all students in developing advanced literacy practices, work with teachers around implementation of genre pedagogy has met with mixed success (Aguirre-Munoz, et al., 2008; Gebhard, et al., 2007; Gebhard, et al., 2008; Brisk & Zisselsberger, 2011; Rose & Martin, 2012; Schleppegrell, Greer, & Taylor, 2008).

Some of the challenges that have emerged from researchers' work with teachers to implement genre pedagogy are described in the final section of this literature review.

2.5.2 The challenges of implementation

Educational linguists (e.g., Christie, 2002, 2012; Macken-Horarik, 2006b; Rose & Martin, 2012; Schleppegrell, 2004) have claimed that the linguistic resources that function to enable students to produce academically-valued written texts across school genres must be explicitly taught. Yet, in an era in which progressivist and constructivist approaches predominate in K-12 educational contexts, many teachers subscribe to the view that students should decide what to write about and how to write about a selected topic (Christie, 2002; Rose & Martin, 2012).

As Christie (2002) noted, "Many English teachers do not believe it is their role to teach knowledge about language so they employ no metalanguage either for discussing the types of texts to be written or the linguistic features of these texts" (Christie, 2002, p. 66). An emerging body of research described the challenges of supporting teachers to understand genre pedagogy and implement this methodology in K-12 contexts.

Gebhard et al. (2008) described the results of a professional development project that aimed to introduce mainstream and second language pre- and in-service elementary and

secondary teachers to genre pedagogies. Key concepts introduced through this project included the notion that students make choices from the semiotic resources available to them to communicate in particular contexts for various purposes.

Positive results of this professional development initiative indicated that some teachers reported that having a better understanding of how “English works” assisted them in planning how to assist language learners in developing academic literacy (e.g., scaffolding genre structures, attending to cohesive devices). However, other teachers shared that “analyzing and explicitly teaching the linguistic features of the genres they routinely ask students to read and write was an unfamiliar and difficult task, particularly at the secondary level” (Gebhard, et al., 2008, p. 288).

In reflecting on the results of teachers’ participation in a five-day summer institute entitled *Building Academic Literacy through History*, Schleppegrell et al. (2008) noted similar outcomes. Although some teachers reported positive effects of engaging students with history texts through a focus on language, other teachers indicated the need for further training and support in order to implement genre-based strategies.

Aguirre-Munoz et al. (2008) investigated the effectiveness of a professional development program designed to familiarize middle school teachers with the genre-based approach to teaching response-to-literature writing. The overarching goal of this investigation was to inform the design of an instructional framework for teachers to employ to support ELLs’ development of advanced literacy practices.

Specifically, this study focused on building teachers’ understanding of the linguistic resources that are critical for making ideational, interpersonal, and textual meanings in the response to literature genre. Aguirre-Munoz et al. (2008) reported mix results for teacher

participants. For example, results indicated that the professional development program was successful in developing teachers' understanding of the linguistic features of the response to literature genre as well as in improving the quality of teacher feedback to ELLs around their writing.

Nonetheless, Aguirre-Munoz et al. (2008) noted inconsistent changes in teachers' practice and incorporation of functional language strategies presented during the training. For instance, about one third of the teacher participants did not incorporate the functional language strategies into their writing lessons.

Importantly, however, these researchers also reported encouraging results:

Patterns of teacher analysis of student writing revealed a statistically significant increase in sensitivity to the identification of strengths and weaknesses related to field, mode, and tenor characteristics of expository texts. Indeed the great majority of teachers focused their feedback and planning on developing students' linguistic resources that aid in clarifying meaning utilizing the text-analysis tools they learned in the training (Aguirre-Munoz, et al., 2008 p. 312).

Relatedly, Gebhardt et al. (2007) conducted a case study of a fifth grade teacher's use of the tools of systemic functional linguistics (SFL) to teach her culturally and linguistically diverse fifth grade students to analyze and use academic language to write a persuasive argument to convince the school's principal to restore recess. The teacher had been trained in an SFL genre-based approach to literacy instruction through participation in a professional development program entitled Access to Critical Content and English Language Acquisition (ACCELA), a partnership between a state university and two urban school districts.

The ACCELA partnership focused on helping teachers to understand second language literacy practices from functional linguistic and sociocultural perspectives (Gebhardt et al., 2007). That is, teachers learned to guide students to work together to make more expert linguistic choices when writing in a given genre by exploring the way that context of situation

influenced the way that language functioned to create ideational, interpersonal, and textual meanings.

Gebhardt et al. (2007) reported that the teacher of focus in this study declared that the fine-grained understanding of SFL and genre-based pedagogy she had gained through the ACCELA partnership was analogous to “cracking some secret code for ‘doing school’ she didn’t know existed but could now share with her students” (Gebhardt et al., 2007, p. 429). In addition, this teacher continued to use her knowledge of SFL to collect and analyze school district writing prompts and students’ writing samples. These data were subsequently employed to successfully convince school district administrators to pay closer attention to the language demands of assessment tasks.

However, Gebhardt et al. (2007) also noted that many ACCELA teachers failed to continue to employ genre-based strategies in their classrooms after participation in the partnership ended due to concerns that keeping their jobs depended on adherence to a school district’s English language arts curriculum with fidelity. This institutional reality prompted these researchers to caution that “any attempt to support teachers in using a more critical conception of SFL must involve teachers, teacher educators, administrators, and researchers in working collaboratively” (Gebhardt et al., 2007, p. 429).

In a related study, Brisk and Zisselsberger (2011) reported the results of a professional development project that aimed to introduce teachers of bilingual learners to an SFL-based approach to teaching writing. This study included an analysis of the impact of the project on the participating teachers.

The eleven teacher participants in the study explored the way that SFL theory applied to the teaching of writing in seven two-hour sessions. The main SFL topics in these sessions

included context of culture, context of situation, field, tenor, mode, and genres. Professional development materials included an explanation of the structural organization and language demands of the genres found in elementary school texts (Brisk & Ziesselsberger, 2011).

Brisk and Ziesselsberger (2011) reported the need to make constant shifts to the professional development plan based on participants' reactions. That is, teachers expressed frustration at not being able link the material presented in the professional development sessions to how to teach writing. This frustration resulted in a shift to provide teachers with a guiding list of steps to follow when teaching writing.

Importantly, Brisk and Ziesslesberger (2011) noted that although this shift in focus assisted teachers in implementing the genre-based strategies with more confidence, little time remained to focus on the theory of SFL to build an understanding of language and its function to construe meanings in the genres of focus.

Notably, the majority of teacher participants expressed that the one-to-one coaching provided by the researchers during classroom visits was most effective in helping them learn to attend to the discourse patterns and language features of various genres in writing lessons. Some teachers also reflected on the effect of the genre-based professional development on students' writing practices. For example, teachers expressed that their newly-acquired knowledge about the linguistic features of various genres enabled them to afford students with opportunities to move beyond writing personal recounts and narratives and explore other genres (Brisk & Ziesslesberger, 2011).

Importantly, Rose and Martin (2012) stressed that a core principle in genre pedagogy was that training must occur in tandem with classroom practice. Rose and Martin elaborated that genre pedagogy evolved in partnership with teachers and teacher educators, in the context of

continual professional learning opportunities. These researchers emphasized the importance of this deliberate linking of theory to practice as follows:

Genre pedagogy differs from many other learning theories, in that it is not merely *about* learning, but incorporates a detailed set of procedures for teaching. Where other theories expect teacher educators to recontextualise theory for teacher training, and then expect teacher educators to recontextualise it for their students, genre pedagogy involves both a theory and its recontextualisation as practice (Rose & Martin, 2012, p. 321).

Thus, a central aim in the development of genre pedagogy was to integrate teachers' learning of pedagogy and linguistic theory with classroom practice. In support of this aim, Rose and Martin (2012) designed a spiral curriculum for teacher professional learning program around the *Reading to Learn* framework that comprised four key phases: (i) knowledge about language and pedagogy, (ii) lesson planning, (iii) classroom implementation, and (iv) assessment of students' growth.

The first phase of the spiral curriculum included introduction of a writing assessment criteria tool designed to enable teachers to identify the language resources evident in students' writing tasks. This writing tool mapped a list of guiding questions for teachers to employ to assess students' writing onto language features linked to *context*, *discourse*, and *grammar* and *graphic features*.

For example, guiding questions related to *context* linked to purpose, schematic structure, and the register variables of field, tenor, and mode. Guiding questions linked to *discourse* connected to lexical resources to construct ideation (e.g., construe experience), convey appraisal (e.g., evaluation), and employ conjunction and other referents to organize the text. Guiding questions linked to *grammar* and *graphic features* were used to assess a student's use of a variety of sentence and word group structures appropriate to the school stage, accurate use of the grammatical conventions of written English, and spelling, punctuation, and presentation.

In the second phase of the training program, teachers implemented the strategies of Preparing for Reading and Joint Construction in their classrooms with a focus on analyzing texts for lesson planning and using guided interaction to teach reading and writing. In the next phase, teachers learned the strategies for Detailed Reading and focused on the design of very detailed lesson plans based on text analysis for supporting students in deconstructing texts with a focus on the language features students could subsequently employ in writing tasks.

Rose and Martin (2012) argued that this kind of lesson preparation afforded teachers with opportunities to explore the language demands of texts that students are expected to read and write. Following lesson preparation, teachers implemented the Preparing for Reading, Detailed Reading, and Joint Construction lessons that they had designed.

This practice in analyzing texts and planning and implementing a series of reading and writing lessons prepared teachers for the next phase of the training which included detailed explanations of knowledge about language through an exploration of the language systems that unfolded ideational, interpersonal, and textual meanings. In-depth knowledge of these language systems was built through guided and independent functional analyses of text examples followed by discussion (Rose & Martin, 2012).

The final phase of training represented an iteration of text analysis, lesson planning, and writing assessment activities embedded in classroom practice. The goal was for teachers to gain control of the pedagogic metalanguage needed to implement the *Reading to Learn* framework and to understand the processes of grammatical metaphor in order to conceptualize how to teach it in their classrooms (Rose & Martin, 2012).

This elaborate model of teacher preparation, focused on the knowledge about language necessary for developing and implementing the lessons in the stages of the *Reading to Learn*

framework, supported the critical goal underpinning the design of genre pedagogy, that of achieving social justice through improved educational outcomes for all students.

The current investigation, warranted by the research presented in this literature review, describes the development and implementation of an instructional intervention that closely followed the *Reading to Learn* framework. I present the design of this instructional intervention in Chapter 3, Methodology.

3.0 METHODOLOGY

This present study investigated the potential impact of an eight-week instructional intervention informed by the genre-based pedagogy *Reading to Learn* framework (Martin & Rose, 2005, 2008). The central aim of the *Reading to Learn* framework is to support students in reading texts and to use what they have learned from reading in their writing (Martin & Rose, 2005).

A growing body of research suggests that genre pedagogy may effectively support the academic literacy development of second language learners in K-12 contexts (Christie, 2012; Christie & Dreyfus, 2007; Colombi & Schleppegrell, 2002; Fang & Wang, 2011; Gebhard & Harman, 2011; Gebhard, Demers, & Castillo-Rosenthal, 2008; Martin, 2009). The instructional intervention implemented in this study was warranted by this body of research and responded to the challenge for teachers to learn to

“critically unpack how academic language works in the genres they routinely ask their students to read and write in school; expand the range of linguistic choices available to students in communicating for particular purposes and audiences; and support ELLs in using academic language to accomplish social, academic, and political work that matters to them” (Gebhard & Harman, 2011, pp. 45-55).

3.1 PROCEDURES

The three research questions addressed in this investigation were:

1. What was the potential effect of the genre-based *Reading to Learn* instructional approach on adolescent ELLs' ability to write persuasive essays?
2. How did adolescent ELLs perceive the effect of the genre-based *Reading to Learn* instructional approach on their writing development?
3. What were the unique challenges of developing and implementing the genre-based *Reading to Learn* instructional approach with public high school ELLs in the English as a Second Language classroom?

Functional linguistic text analysis (Christie, 2012; Fang & Wang, 2011; Macken-Horarik, 2006b; Schleppegrell, 2006) was used to analyze and score participants' written persuasive essays. Subsequently, the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test was used to analyze these scores in order to address the first research question. Data obtained from a brief post-instructional unit survey (Yasuda, 2011) completed by all participants as well as follow-up interviews with six focal students were analyzed to address the second research question. An ethnographic approach (Walford, 2008) was used to address the third research question.

I designed the instructional intervention around the central question, "Should amnesty be granted to undocumented immigrants?" a relevant topic for adolescent ELLs. As the genre of focus, I chose the persuasive argument essay. Reading and writing in this genre are particularly challenging for adolescent ELLs (Schleppegrell, 2006; Macken-Horarik, Love, & Unsworth, 2011) and competence in writing an academically-valued persuasive essay is an important skill for all high school students to acquire in preparation for post-secondary studies (Schleppegrell 2001, 2004). Thus, the central purpose in this instructional intervention was to support a group of adolescent ELLs in the development of advanced literacy practices (Colombi & Schleppegrell, 2002) through the deconstruction and production of persuasive argument essays.

The instructional intervention and data collection that informed this study took place between April 11 and June 4, 2012. In alignment with the genre-based *Reading to Learn* framework (Martin & Rose, 2005, 2008), the instructional intervention comprised a set of phases: Preparing to Read, Detailed Reading, Joint Rewriting, and Individual Construction. In turn, each phase had a specific focus with a series of lessons designed to support these foci. I provide a brief description of each of these phases in the following sections.

3.1.1 The preparing to read stage

In the Preparing to Read stage, the teacher verbalizes the sequence of a text's field (e.g., content) as it unfolds through the typical discourse patterns of the school-based genre of focus. It is important for the teacher to conduct this summary using commonsense terms (e.g., everyday language) that all students can understand (Martin & Rose, 2005).

The reading task is further decomplexified as the teacher reads the text aloud to the class. Martin and Rose (2005) claim that this oral reading by the teacher as students follow on their own copy of the text allows weaker readers to attend to the words without having to decode words on their own. Additionally, as the text is read orally, the struggle to figure out what is going on in each wave of information that builds the discourse is removed.

Through the strategies employed in the Preparing to Read stage, students are supported in developing an understanding of the overall meanings of a text and prepared for understanding the deeper meanings within each sentence (Martin & Rose, 2005; Rose & Martin, 2012). That is, the support provided at the levels of discourse and graphology in the Preparing to Read stage reduce the complexity of the reading task and prepare students for a closer, detailed reading of the text in the Detailed Reading stage (Rose, 2005).

3.1.2 The detailed reading stage

In the Detailed Reading stage, the teacher further supports students in understanding the text by reading it together sentence-by-sentence as the teacher provides meaning cues. With these meaning cues, students actively identify key wordings in each sentence (Rose, 2005).

To provide meaning cues, the teacher first paraphrases the meaning of the whole sentence in commonsense terms and clarifies its connection to the context or preceding text. Second, the teacher directs students to identify and name a key wording in the sentence (e.g., “Which word in this sentence means . . . ?”). Third, the meaning of this key wording is elaborated upon by defining its technical or literate meaning, using explanations or metaphors, or by linking the key wording to students’ relevant experience (Martin & Rose, 2005).

Martin and Rose (2005) identified these moves of the Detailed Reading stage as a cycle of *Prepare*, *Task*, and *Elaborate*. The use of this scaffolded interaction cycle further enables the teacher to draw students’ attention to the language features in a text. Thus, the teacher carefully plans which language features students will attend to, how students will be prepared to identify these features, and how each feature will be elaborated on or explained (Martin & Rose, 2005). As the teacher moves through the *Prepare*, *Task*, and *Elaborate* cycle, students highlight the key wordings and language features of the genre of focus on their own copy of the text.

In short, this interactive text deconstruction allows “every learner to read a text that is appropriate to their age or grade, with fluency and comprehension, no matter how weak their independent readings skills may be” (Martin & Rose, 2005, p. 259). In the instructional intervention designed for this investigation, the Detailed Reading stage strategies were followed by those that comprise the Joint Construction stage.

3.1.3 The joint construction stage

Having read the text accurately and annotated key wordings and important language features through guided interaction in the Detailed Reading stage, students are prepared to use the language patterns of this focus text to construct a new text in the same genre.

In the Joint Construction stage, the teacher directs students to use the highlighted key wordings and language features marked on the text that was deconstructed in the Detailed Reading stage as a scaffold for employing new wordings while adhering to the same language features and discourse patterns of the genre of focus to construct a new text (Martin & Rose, 2005).

Thus, the teacher again engages students in a scaffolded interaction cycle to support them in imagining and jointly constructing a new text. This guided joint construction includes a critical discussion of the way the author of the original text employed the language features and discourse patterns of the genre of focus in order to guide students to reconstruct a similar text (Martin & Rose, 2005).

This negotiated joint construction helps to prepare students to write their own texts in the genre of focus in the Individual Construction stage.

3.1.4 The individual construction stage

In this final stage of the *Reading to Learn* framework, students are afforded the opportunity to apply what they have learned through guided interaction with the teacher about the language features and discourse patterns of the genre of focus to individually write a text in this same genre (Martin & Rose, 2005; Rose, 2005).

Martin and Rose (2005) posit that, over time, repetition of all of the strategies and supports embedded in the *Reading to Learn* framework with other texts in school-based genres can prepare students for engaging in independent research and writing in any field and genre.

Specifically, I developed the current instructional intervention that employed the strategies of the Preparing to Read, Detailed Reading, Joint Construction, and Individual Construction stages of the *Reading to Learn* framework in order to investigate the use of this genre-based framework in an instructional unit about the reading and writing of academically-valued persuasive argument essays. In the following section, I provide an overview of the instructional intervention.

3.2 DESCRIPTION OF THE INSTRUCTIONAL INTERVENTION

A timeline for the instructional intervention is outlined in Table 2. Detailed descriptions of the lessons and procedures in each stage as well as the instructional tasks and activities that took place are included in subsequent chapters. In this chapter, I present an overview of the instructional intervention.

Table 2. Timeline for Instructional Intervention

Date	Stages and Activities	Focus
April 11 to April 13, 2012	Building Field Stage	Students learned about the topic of amnesty through reading about and discussing arguments both for and against amnesty.
April 16, 2012	Pretest	Students wrote a persuasive essay in response to a school-based topic.
April 17, 2012	ESL Teachers' In-Service Day	I was not present on this day; students watched a video entitled "Roots of Migration" with a substitute teacher.
April 18 to April 24, 2012	Building Field Stage (continued)	Students learned about the topic of amnesty through reading about and discussing arguments both for and against amnesty.
April 25, 2012	Social Purpose of Persuasive Argument Essays	Students discussed who writes persuasive argument essays and why they are written.
April 26, 2012	Preparing to Read Stage: Model Persuasive Argument Essay	Students followed while I read a model pro-amnesty essay to acquaint students with generic structure of this text and to reiterate purpose.
April 27 to May 8, 2012	Detailed Reading Stage: Model Persuasive Pro-Amnesty Argument Essay	Students engaged in sentence-by-sentence reading to build awareness of linguistic resources that function to realize three meanings, to understand text itself, and to reiterate generic structure.
May 9 to May 11, 2012	Joint Construction Stage	Students worked with me and with peers to employ linguistic resources to co-construct a novel pro-amnesty persuasive argument essay.
May 14 to May 17, 2012	Detailed Reading Stage: Model Against-Amnesty Persuasive Argument Essay	Students engaged in sentence-by-sentence reading to build awareness of linguistic resources that function to realize three meanings, to understand text itself, and to

		reiterate generic structure.
Date	Stages and Activities	Focus
May 18, 2012	Review of Amnesty-Related Issues	Students read and discussed a recap of pro and con sides of amnesty-related issues to prepare for independent writing.
May 21 to May 24, 2012	Individual Construction Stage	Students chose to write either a pro or con persuasive argument essay about amnesty employing the linguistic resources that they had learned.
May 25 and May 28, 2012	No School	
May 29, 2012	Sharing and Self-Evaluating	Students self-evaluated their persuasive argument essays using a tool that aligned with linguistic resources and three meanings; students shared their essays with peers.
May 30, 2012	Post Instructional Unit Survey	Students completed the post instructional unit survey regarding their perception of their competence in writing persuasive argument essays.
May 31, 2012	Senior Community Service Day	Seniors and I attended a Community Service Day while underclassmen completed Scholastic Reading Inventory in lab at school.
June 1, 2012	Posttest	Students wrote a persuasive essay in response to a second school-based topic.
June 4, 2012	Complete Posttest	Students were provided with 15 more minutes to complete Posttest Part 1 as most students had not finished writing on June 1 st .
June 4, 2012	Follow-Up Interviews	A fellow doctoral student conducted and recorded follow-up interviews in the school library with six focal students.

An important first step preceding the *Reading to Learn* stages was to build students' knowledge of the field (Macken-Horarik, 2002; Martin & Rose, 2005) by expanding students' background knowledge about the central topic of amnesty for undocumented immigrants. In order to build students' background knowledge about both sides of the amnesty issue, I planned a series of Building Field lessons.

These lessons involved reading and responding to a variety of texts from different sources concerning the pros and cons of granting amnesty as well as the underlying issues that surround this topic (e.g., economic effects, crime and terrorism, education, employment). I also included a DVD entitled "Roots of Migration," (Barton, 2009) in the building field lessons.

Following the Building Field lessons, I conducted the lessons in the Preparing to Read stage. The overarching goal in this stage was to acquaint students with the genre of study (e.g., persuasive argument essays) and to provide a summary of the topic and sequence of a text in this genre. In these lessons, I introduced students to the social purpose of writing academically valued persuasive argument essays.

In addition, these lessons outlined the generic structure of this genre: (a) introduction with thesis statement and presentation of arguments to be developed; (b) argument one; (c) argument two; (d) argument three; and (e) conclusion with reiteration of arguments. This generic structure (Martin & Rose, 2008; Schleppegrell, 2006) was highlighted by reading to students a model persuasive argument essay (see Appendix A) in favor of granting amnesty to undocumented immigrants.

After acquainting students with the social purpose and generic structure of persuasive argument essays, I began the lessons in the Detailed Reading stage (Martin & Rose, 2005, 2008). These lessons constituted the bulk of the instructional intervention as the central focus was on

deconstructing a model persuasive argument essay while examining the linguistic resources that are functional for writing successfully in this genre.

I based the selection of the specific linguistic resources that function to construe academically-valued persuasive argument essays on extensive functional linguistic text analyses conducted by SFL educational linguists (Coffin, 2004; Martin & Rose, 2008; Schleppegrell, 2006). During the *Reading to Learn* lessons, the close examination of the linguistic resources that function to realize a well-written persuasive argument essay included sentence-by-sentence reading of the model pro-amnesty persuasive essay while color coding and discussing the various linguistic tools I had used as the author of the essay.

The linguistic resources that frame the pattern of choices in a given genre function simultaneously to realize the three overarching kinds of meaning in any genre: ideational meaning, interpersonal meaning, and textual meaning (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). Through this functional lens, a text can be described in terms of the content conveyed (e.g., ideational meaning), the evaluative stance taken by the writer (e.g., interpersonal meaning), and the compositional structure of the text (e.g., textual meaning) (Macken-Horarik, 2006).

Schleppegrell (2006) usefully outlined the specific linguistic resources for the genre of persuasive argument essays and explained the way that these language resources represent a constellation of resources that collectively unfold the three meanings simultaneously. I followed Schleppegrell's suggestion that, for instructional purposes, these three meanings can be named with terms more accessible to students: Presenting Content and Knowledge (e.g., realizing purpose), Meeting Audience Expectations Projecting an Authoritative Stance (e.g., meeting audience expectations), and Constructing an Organized Text (e.g., building coherence). Table 3

summarizes the linguistic resources that function to construe the three major types of meanings in persuasive argument essays.

Table 3. Linguistic Resources for Persuasive Argument Essays

Types of Meaning	Linguistic Resources
Ideational: Presenting Content and Knowledge: Realizing Purpose	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A thesis statement drawing on modality and a consequential marker to propose a position • Nominal expressions to names arguments to be made • Definition of key terms through relational processes • Concession and/or refutation to include a counter argument
Interpersonal: Projection of an Authoritative Stance: Meeting Audience Expectations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Modality for constructing possibility and necessity in making judgments • Evaluative language and judgment to construct arguments with claims and evidence • Consequential markers for drawing conclusions or supporting assertions • Projection through mental and verbal processes for citing others or presenting author's stance
Textual: Construction of a Well-Organized Text: Building Coherence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Development of points in separate paragraphs • Thematic choices to enable smooth progression in presenting information • Construction of chain of reasoning through nominal structures and interal connectors

(Adapted from Schleppegrell, 2006)

Although reading and learning about the pros and cons of amnesty for undocumented immigrants was the central topic of the instructional intervention, the central purpose was to provide students with opportunities to develop awareness of and competence in employing the linguistic resources that function to construe an academic-style persuasive argument essay to both deconstruct and produce such a text. Based on research regarding the specific linguistic tools that are functional for realizing a persuasive argument essay (Coffin, 2004; Martin & Rose, 2008; Schleppegrell, 2004, 2006), I designed the principal instructional tools to be used throughout the *Reading to Learn* cycle.

These principal instructional tools included two model persuasive argument essays (see Appendix A and Appendix B), one for and one against amnesty for undocumented immigrants. Both essays employed the language resources that function to create ideational (e.g., presenting content and knowledge), interpersonal (e.g., projecting an authoritative stance), and textual (e.g., constructing a well-organized text) meanings in this genre. Based on Schleppegrell's (2006) identification of the linguistic resources that function to realize these meanings in a persuasive argument essay, I wrote the model essays.

For example, to realize the purpose of presenting content and knowledge, in each model essay I included a thesis statement that drew on modality and the use of a consequential marker to propose and support a position. Nominal structures were employed to present the arguments to be developed in the essay, and a relational process (e.g., *is*) was used to define amnesty. Counter-arguments were presented through concession and refutation.

To meet audience expectations for an academic-style, authoritative stance throughout the essay, I drew upon the resources of evaluation and judgment to present an opinion. These resources include the use of modality to construct possibility and necessity and the use of

consequential markers to build an explicit point of view. I employed mental and verbal processes (e.g., verbs of thinking and saying) to introduce others' voices to either support or challenge a given argument.

To build coherence and achieve a well-organized text, I developed the arguments presented in the introduction one by one in separate paragraphs. I built a chain of reasoning through the use of nominal structures, internal connectors, conjunctive links, and thematic progression. I employed cohesive demonstratives and synonyms as referents that contributed to the organizational flow of ideas. Finally, in the conclusion of each model essay, I wrote a summary statement that reiterated the arguments presented and linked back to the thesis statement.

Finally, based on the Schelppegrell's (2006) research regarding the linguistic resources that are functional for simultaneously realizing the three overarching meanings in the persuasive argument essay, I designed a Performance Criteria and Assessment Tool (see Appendix C) detailing the specific language resources that function to construe each type of meaning. I made use of this Performance Criteria and Assessment Tool for various purposes. First, I used this tool to support students' understanding of the language tools of focus in the instructional intervention. In addition, students accessed this tool as a scaffold to guide their writing during the Individual Construction stage of the *Reading to Learn* cycle. Finally, I used the Performance Criteria and Assessment Tool to evaluate students' pretest and posttest essays as well as the essays that students produced in the Individual Construction stage.

The specific lessons, instructional tools, tasks, and assessments that I created to build students' awareness of and competence in using these linguistic resources to read and write academically valued persuasive argument essays are elaborated on in subsequent chapters about

each stage of the *Reading to Learn* framework. In addition, all instructional materials and assessments are included as appendices. Table 4 outlines the organization of these subsequent chapters which richly describe the lessons conducted throughout the instructional intervention:

Table 4. Organization of Chapters about the Instructional Intervention

Chapter Title	Focus
Chapter 4	Building Field State Lessons
Chapter 5	Preparing to Read Stage Lessons
Chapter 6	Detailed Reading State Lessons (pro-amnesty model essay)
Chapter 7	Joint Construction Stage Lessons
Chapter 8	Detailed Reading Stage Lessons (against-amnesty model essay) and Individual Construction Stage Lessons

In the next section, I describe the students who participated in the instructional intervention.

3.3 PARTICIPANTS

The instructional intervention in this study took place during the last eight weeks of the 2011-2012 school year in a large urban public high school in Pennsylvania. Of the more than 1,100 students who attended this school, 163 were English language learners (ELLs).

The twenty ELLs who participated in this study were those students who had attained the highest levels of English language proficiency (ELP) among ELLs currently enrolled in this high school. These students' ELP levels were determined by their scores on the standardized World Class Instructional Design and Assessment (WIDA) ACCESS for ELLs (www.wida.us). The WIDA ACCESS test is an annual assessment mandated by the Pennsylvania State Department of

Education for all K-12 ELLs, which was administered to 19 of the 20 participants in January 2011.

Eighteen of these students, as well as one who enrolled mid-year and took the standardized WIDA placement test (e.g., the W-APT) to determine the ELP level upon enrollment, had all obtained an overall ELP between a “Level 4 Expanding,” and a “Level 5 Bridging,” indicating good progress through the six ELP levels: Entering, Beginning, Developing, Expanding, Bridging, and Reaching (www.wida.us). One twelfth grade female student’s ELP level was a 3.8, but as a senior, she was placed in this class in which she would take ESL only one period daily permitting her to complete other necessary credits for graduation throughout the school year.

Although these students had achieved an ELP level between Expanding and Bridging by the start of the 2011-12 school year, they varied in age, gender, grade level, and linguistic and cultural background as well as time in a U.S. school. Seven participants were in the ninth grade, two were in the tenth grade, one was in the eleventh grade, and ten were in the twelfth grade. Thirteen participants were male and seven were female. Participants’ first languages included Vietnamese, Somali, Burmese, Karen, Chinese, Spanish, and Nepali. Length of time in a U.S. public school varied from one to nine years, with 14 of the 20 participants having completed three years or a less in a U.S. public school. Demographic information regarding these participants is summarized in Table 5 below.

Ten of the 20 participants were high school seniors. Nine of these seniors were between ages 18 and 21. These high school seniors had arrived in the U.S. with their families as resettled refugees from Bhutan and Myanmar who had spent the majority of their lives in refugee camps in Nepal and Thailand respectively. Eight of the ten seniors had been in the U.S. public high

school in which the present study took place for three years or less. These students had submitted transcripts for secondary coursework completed in their schools in the refugee camps which were reviewed and accepted by the public high school. Thus, these eight students were able to complete credit requirements for graduating from this public high school before age 21, the maximum age that ELLs may attend K-12 schools in Pennsylvania.

The 20 participants had attained a wide variety of literacy levels, as per the WIDA 2011 results (see Table 5). For example, some students had an overall ELP score of 4.0 or higher but reading and writing scores that corresponded to lower ELP levels. Thus, in some cases, their overall ELP level was “boosted” by their scores in speaking and listening. That is, although these students had all developed solid conversational skills (e.g., WIDA scores in listening and speaking at levels 4, 5, and 6), 14 of the 20 participants were still within the continuum of level 3 for reading and writing (e.g., WIDA scores between 2.9 and 3.9).

In general, all of the participants were fairly good students in the ESL classroom in which the present study took place. In the first three grading periods of the 2011-2012 school year, 18 students had earned grades of B or A while two had consistently earned a grade of C. All but two of the students had expressed plans to attend college after graduating from high school. Those planning to pursue post-secondary studies planned to begin at the local community college. Six students were selected as focal students in this study, and these students are described in the following section.

Table 5. Demographic Information about Participants

Participant ID#	Gender M (Male) F (Female)	Grade Level in 2011-12	Native Language (L1)	WIDA 2011 Oral Language Score: Listening & Speaking	WIDA 2011 Literacy Score: Reading & Writing	WIDA 2011 Overall English Language Proficiency Level	Years in a U.S. School
4153030	M	9	Vietnamese	6.0	2.9	4.3	8
4357345	F	9	Somali	6.0	3.8	4.6	5
4373502	M	9	Burmese	6.0	3.8	4.2	5
4484789	M	9	Nepali	6.0	3.3	4.4	3
4562739	F	9	Nepali	5.8	3.3	4.0	2
4031741	M	9	Vietnamese	6.0	3.3	4.2	9
4557530	M	9	Nepali	5.5	3.7	4.3	2
4464532	M	10	Nepali	3.9	5.1	4.6	3
4515773	M	10	Nepali	5.0	4.8	4.8	2
4501306	M	11	Nepali	5.8	3.4	4.8	2
4456505	F	12	Nepali	4.0	3.8	3.8	3
4484789	F	12	Nepali	4.8	3.8	4.1	3
4507924	F	12	Karen	4.6	4.5	4.5	2
4482069	M	12	Chinese	4.1	4.1	4.1	3
4373510	M	12	Burmese	4.8	3.9	4.1	4
4557212	F	12	Nepali	4.4	3.9	4.0	2
4373499	M	12	Karen	4.1	3.9	4.0	5
4501314	M	12	Nepali	4.7	5.1	4.9	3
4629833	M	12	Nepali	4.0	4.1	4.1	2
4603125	F	12	Spanish	N/A	N/A	N/A	1

3.3.1 Focal students

Careful attention to the meanings and wordings of students' written texts can provide useful insights into the kinds of knowledge about language that need to be made explicit in secondary classrooms in order for all students to attain the types of advanced literacy practices that are valued in schools (Christie, 2012; Christie & Derewianka, 2008; Macken-Horarik, 2006;

Schleppegrell, 2006). Furthermore, including an ethnographic approach in research design can provide a useful mechanism for understanding teaching and learning processes (Walford, 2008).

Incorporating this ethnographic approach (Walford, 2008) allowed me to use multiple methods (e.g., interviewing, videotapes, surveys, quantitative work, and cultural artifacts) to provide a rich portrayal of students' appropriation of the use of the linguistic resources presented and practiced throughout the instructional intervention. To inform this rich description of the teaching and learning processes during the instructional intervention, I chose to highlight six focal students' pretest and posttest essays, individually written essays about amnesty, exemplars of classroom work, and interviews (Yasuda, 2011) reflecting these students' metacognition about their own development as second language writers.

I chose these six focal students based on their motivation and engagement as learners. In addition, accounting for more than 25% of the total student participants, these six students represented the diversity in grade levels, ELP levels, ages, native language (L1) groups, cultural backgrounds, and amount of time in a U.S. school that existed among the twenty participants. Most importantly, including these focal students allowed me to exemplify the instructional context, tasks, and activities in order to present and explain the overall findings in a clear, principled way.

Each of the focal students completed a brief written questionnaire about their educational history. I provide a summary of these responses below. The focal students' names are all pseudonyms.

3.3.1.1 Focal student 1: Asha

Asha was ten years old when she entered a U.S. school for the first time in the fifth grade.

At that time, Asha could not read or write in her first language, Somali, although her father subsequently taught her to write in Somali. Asha's mother never received any formal schooling, but her father graduated from high school in Kenya.

Asha attended school in the refugee camp in Kenya where she was born. However, she reported that she had only one teacher who spoke Swahili, which she did not originally understand. In school in the refugee camp, Asha studied only math and English. Currently, Asha reports that she is more comfortable speaking in English than in her first language and that she speaks in English at home with her siblings.

3.3.1.2 Focal student 2: Htoo

Htoo was also ten years old and entered the fifth grade when he came to the United States as a permanent legal resident refugee from Myanmar (e.g., Burma). Htoo was born in a refugee camp in Thailand where his parents had settled after fleeing Myanmar. Htoo reported that his parents attended school as children and that his father became a teacher, although his mom did not continue to study.

Htoo reported that he did learn to read and write in Burmese but that he has forgotten how to do so. However, he is comfortable speaking in Burmese although he generally speaks in English to his older brother. Htoo attended school in Thailand and described the school as having "about 50 students in class with no books." Htoo reported that his teacher prepared him for transitioning to life in the United States.

3.3.1.3 Focal student 3: Roshan

Roshan was 12 years old and entered the seventh grade when his family was resettled in the United States during a large resettlement of ethnic Nepali refugees from Bhutan. Although

Roshan's parents never attended school, he described his education in the refugee camp in Nepal as "organized" and stated that he had learned to read and write in Nepali. However, Roshan reported that he "lost my skills to read and write in my language when I start learning in English." Roshan wrote that he feels comfortable speaking in both languages and that he speaks Nepali at home.

3.3.1.4 Focal student 4: Soe

Soe was 15 years old and entered the eighth grade when his family was resettled in the United States as part of a large resettlement of Burmese refugees who had spent several years in refugee camps in Thailand. Soe reported that his parents only received a middle school education as no higher-level of schooling was available in the town where they had lived in Myanmar.

Soe reported that he attended an Arabic school, rather than an English school, in the refugee camp. There were about 15 students in his class and school took place eight hours a day for eight months of the year. He described himself as an excellent student.

Soe commented that he uses Burmese to read on the Internet and to chat with his Burmese friends online. Soe stated that he feels more comfortable speaking in Burmese as it is easier for him "to explain to someone what I am saying." He reported that he does not speak English at home.

3.3.1.5 Focal student 5: Tika

Tika was 15 years old and entered the ninth grade when her family resettled in the United States with several other ethnic Nepali refugee families. Tika reported that when she arrived in the United States, she could read and write in Nepali but that she has not continued to learn to read

and write in her first language since that time. Tika stated that although she feels more comfortable speaking in Nepali, she often speaks in English with her parents at home.

Tika reported that her parents did not attend school as children. Tika described her educational experience in the refugee camp in Nepal as a positive one even though there were approximately 50 students in her class. Tika attended school for eight hours a day for ten months each year. She reported that she studied math, history, English, and science and that the books were in English. Tika stated that she had eight different teachers who were well-prepared to teach.

3.3.1.6 Focal student 6: Pilar

Pilar came to the United States from the Dominican Republic with her mother and younger brother as an 18-year-old at the beginning of her senior year. Pilar had received a private, catholic education for the first 11 years of her schooling. Attending high school in the United States was her first experience in a public school. Although Pilar did not report the educational level of her parents, she stated that both her mother and father were professionals who ran an extensive import and export business in her country before their divorce.

Among the 20 participants in this current investigation, Pilar had the highest level of formal education. Even though she had just arrived in the United States at the beginning of the 2011-12 school year, she scored at a Level 4 Developing on the WIDA Access Placement Test (W-APT). Thus, Pilar was placed in the first period ESL class. Pilar reported that she was “at the top of her class” in the Dominican Republic and had been a student leader as well. The transition to a new public school in a new country as a high school senior was a difficult one for her.

3.4 INSTRUCTIONAL CONTEXT

In Pennsylvania, English as a Second Language (ESL) is its own content area, although it is closely aligned with English Language Arts (ELA). As one of more than 20 states that belong to the WIDA Consortium (www.wida.us), the PA Department of Education has mapped the English Language Proficiency (ELP) Standards onto the PA ELA Standards in an effort to ensure that ELLs are afforded the same types of literacy and literary experiences as their English-speaking peers are offered in the content area of ELA. In order to teach secondary level ESL (e.g., grades 7 – 12) in Pennsylvania, one must possess dual teaching certifications: a K-12 ESL Program Specialist Certificate and a PA 7-12 Secondary English Certificate.

In this investigation, I fulfilled the dual role of both doctoral candidate researcher and daily English as a Second Language (ESL) teacher for the twenty participants. Fulfilling the role of both teacher and researcher responds to the call for “action-oriented research methods that include the participation of local participants in data collection and analysis” (Gebhard & Harman, 2011, p. 52). Gebhard and Harman (2011) advocated for research that investigates the way that genre-based pedagogy may support ELLs in attaining academic literacy practices through the collection of grounded classroom data. Christie (2012) also described the research she conducted over many years which included the use of functional grammar and genre-based pedagogies in overt interventions in classrooms in both primary and secondary schools.

At the time of this study, I had been the ESL teacher for the twenty participants since the beginning of the 2011-12 school year. I had not previously taught these students as I had worked as an ESL curriculum coach in various schools during the 2009-10 school year and had taken an educational sabbatical to pursue doctoral studies during the 2010-11 school year. Prior to the 2009-10 school year, I taught secondary level ESL for five years and middle school level

Spanish for 11 years. I hold PA teaching certifications for K-12 Spanish, K-12 ESL, and secondary English and have an M.A. in Foreign Language Teaching. I have been admitted to doctoral candidacy after completing all coursework in the major field of reading and fulfilling other requirements in pursuit of a PhD in Language, Literacy, and Culture at the University of Pittsburgh.

Thus, I planned this action-oriented research study from August 2011 through March 2012 and added the role of researcher to my role as ESL teacher for the student participants upon implementation of the instructional intervention in mid-April 2012. This action-oriented approach was warranted by calls for research that investigates and describes the implementation of genre-based approaches to literacy instruction, particularly in the K-12 contexts with culturally and linguistically diverse students in the U.S. (Gebhard & Harman, 2011; Martin, 2009; Rose, 2005).

Based on the participants' English Language Proficiency (ELP) levels, as determined through the WIDA ACCESS testing, these students received one period of ESL instruction daily throughout the school year during first period from 7:51 to 8:37 A.M. There were two problems associated with having this class during first period. First, after the late bell at 7:55, morning announcements occurred before instruction began. At times, these announcements began a few minutes after the late bell and lasted between one and three minutes, thus shortening the 42 minute available for instruction. In addition, five or six students generally arrived during the announcements or a few minutes after announcements had concluded due to an ongoing problem with public transportation from a nearby subway station to the high school via a "school bus shuttle."

The students who typically arrived late left their homes around 6:30 a.m. to take a public bus downtown. From there, they took the subway to the subway station about one mile from the school. Unfortunately, approximately 200 students also enrolled in this high school converged daily on the subway station between 7:10 and 7:30 a.m. which meant waiting for the school bus shuttle to continually loop between the subway station and the high school. As a result, this handful of students in the first period ESL class consistently arrived late.

3.4.1 Curricular materials

In the ESL classroom in which this investigation took place, the mandated curricular materials comprised a series of four textbooks (e.g., Fundamentals, Level A, Level B, and Level C) published by National Geographic/Hampton Brown entitled *edge: Reading, Writing, & Language*. This textbook series was authored by well-known leaders in adolescent literacy (e.g., David W. Moore, Deborah J. Short, Michael W. Smith, and Alfred W. Tatum). Although designed for adolescent mainstream English-speaking struggling readers and writers, the series contains built-in supports for ELLs (e.g., visual and language supports, specialized strategies, and differentiated instruction suggestions for various proficiency levels). In the classroom in which this study was conducted, the students used the third textbook in the series, Level B, and had completed 3 of 19 lessons in Unit 6 on persuasive nonfiction when this intervention was implemented.

3.4.1.1 Learning in unit 6

Following is a brief description of the instruction that took place around the topic of persuasive nonfiction in the time period before the present study began. In addition to awaiting both

university and school district IRB approval, the school district had also stipulated that the instructional intervention could not be instituted until the Pennsylvania State System of Assessment (PSSA) testing had been completed. This testing occurred at the end of March 2012, and spring break took place from March 31 to April 8, 2012. Thus, I continued to follow the mandated curriculum until school resumed after spring break, by which time both IRB approvals had been secured and parental consent had been obtained.

I include this description of the instruction that occurred just prior to conducting this dissertation project as the curricular focus of Unit 6 was persuasive nonfiction. Highlighting the introduction to this genre in the curricular materials and the way that students would have learned about reading and writing persuasive nonfiction throughout Unit 6 allows me to compare and contrast this approach to the linguistically informed, genre-based *Reading to Learn* (Martin & Rose, 2005, 2008) approach that informed the instructional intervention. Specifically, outlining the way that teaching and learning ordinarily took place in the classroom in which the study was conducted provides a reference point for comparing the types of instructional tasks and activities related to reading and writing instruction to which the students were accustomed with those embedded in the *Reading to Learn* framework.

In Lesson 1 “Unit Launch,” students were introduced to the Essential Question in Unit 6: “How do the media shape the way people think?” This question served as a central theme for students to explore through reading, writing, and discussion. In the initial lessons of Unit 6, students explored a specific aspect of this larger question: how advertising changes our opinions.

In Lesson 1, students discussed the double-meaning of the question, “Are you buying it?” Students also worked with partners to evaluate two speakers’ messages in the quotes, “You can

tell the ideals of a nation by its advertisements,” and “All television is educational television. The only question is, what is it teaching?” As a support for ELLs, the teacher’s manual suggests, “Explain that *ideals* are standards or ideas that people try to live by and that *nation* is another word for country” (National Geographic/Hampton Brown, 2003, p. 486).

Students then worked in pairs to view a photograph depicting the enormous amount of information that people receive from watching television and discussed how the media sources shown in the photo might influence a person’s thinking. In order to connect to students from different cultural backgrounds, the teacher’s manual provides a set of cloze sentences for students from other cultures to complete; such as, “In ____ (name a culture to explore), some of the main topics covered in the media are ____,” and “The media influences people’s thinking because ____” (National Geographic/Hampton Brown, 2003, p. 487).

Next in Lesson 1, students read a series of pairs of statistics about the amount of commercials average American teens view each year and the dollars they spend annually, the number of violent crimes average teens see on TV by age 18 and the number of American teens under 18 arrested for violent crimes each year, and the average amount of hours Americans spend watching TV each year compared to the number of hours teens spend in school in a year. Students worked with partners to discuss whether the information presented in each pair of statistics is related, whether the media decide what is most important for Americans to know about, and whether the statistics about teens and violent crimes and teens and hours of TV watching are surprising.

3.4.1.2 An introduction to the genre of persuasive nonfiction

In Lesson 2, a note in the margin of the teacher’s manual states, “In this lesson, students explore how the features of persuasive nonfiction work together to advance arguments. After reading

two texts about limiting violence on TV, students synthesize the authors' points. Finally, students examine the specific types of arguments and evidence each author uses" (National Geographic/Hampton Brown, 2003, pg. 490). To introduce the genre of persuasive nonfiction, the teacher's manual directs the teacher to do the following:

Engage students in a discussion about persuasive nonfiction. Ask:

- Have you ever read a book or an article that changed your opinion about an issue?
- How did the author convince or influence you to change your mind?

Discuss students' experience with persuasive texts such as editorials or movie and music reviews (National Geographic/Hampton Brown, 2003, pg. 490).

The focus in Lesson 2 and throughout Unit 6 is almost exclusively on reading persuasive nonfiction rather than on writing in this genre. The reading strategy of focus is "synthesizing information." Students read two very short "demo texts," one written by a child psychologist and one by a business owner and father. Interestingly, not only are the apparent language features (e.g., inclusion of rhetorical questions, use of imperatives, using temporal phrases to unfold a timeline of governmental response to violence on TV) of each text entirely ignored in the teacher's manual, no attention is paid to the overarching distinction that the former is written in an authoritative style while the latter is written in a more personal tone.

Instead of drawing students' attention to the way the authors of these demo text make different language choices to construe two distinct yet persuasive texts, the student textbook invites students to consider what it means to synthesize information and why this skill is particularly difficult when reading persuasive nonfiction. The teacher's manual suggests that the teacher explain that "good readers evaluate what they read. To do this effectively, readers must identify arguments in texts, examine the supporting evidence, and distinguish facts from opinions. It is the reader's job to synthesize, or combine, all of this information and to decide if

he or she agrees with the author and why” (National Geographic/Hampton Brown, 2003, pg. 491).

In the next part of Lesson 2, students read about types of arguments (e.g., appeal to logic, appeal to ethics, and appeal to emotion) and types of evidence (e.g., facts, statistics, quotations, expert opinions, and personal memoirs) and looked for examples in the demo texts. The teacher’s manual reiterates that the teacher should explain that in persuasive nonfiction an author carefully chooses arguments and evidence to make his or her position as persuasive and convincing as possible and that when readers synthesize information, they should consider how ideas in a text and from their own experience work together.

Again, the focus is primarily on the way a *reader* must approach and consider the content of persuasive nonfiction texts rather than on the way a *writer* successfully employs the discursive patterns and language choices that function to present arguments and evidence, adopt an appropriate tone for the audience while conveying a clear position, and build coherence in a text in this genre. In short, the way that language itself is the tool that an author employs to construe meanings for the reader is left “invisible” to the students (Christie, 2012, Martin & Rose, 2005; Macken-Horarik, 2006a).

3.4.1.3 Reading a persuasive nonfiction text

In Lesson 3 of Unit 6, the final lesson completed prior to beginning the instructional intervention in mid-April, students read a persuasive nonfiction text entitled “Ad Power” (National Geographic/Hampton Brown, 2003, pgs. 497-506). Before reading, the student textbook introduced the following key vocabulary through definitions and example sentences: *advertising*, *appeal*, *consumer*, *convince*, *impact*, *manipulate*, *persuasive*, and *profit*.

In addition, the types of arguments and evidence previously introduced were reviewed through reading a brief excerpt from the text. How to synthesize information was reviewed by learning the steps to construct a “conclusion chart” graphic organizer on which students would be asked to note the writer’s claims, add evidence from the text to support each claim, synthesize ideas from their own experience with the writer’s, and draw a conclusion that makes a judgment, gives an opinion, or shows new understanding (National Geographic/Hampton Brown, 2003).

As in lesson two, the focus in this lesson is comprehension of the text, not exploration or consideration of the way that the author, Shari Graydon, makes language choices to construct a persuasive text. In fact, the text is not clearly a persuasive text about the power of advertising in which strong claims are presented and supported with evidence but rather a blend between an informational text and a persuasive one. For example, the text is divided into the following subsections: “Advertising: You’re Swimming in It,” “Is Advertising Good For You?” “Slogans and Logos,” and “How to Evaluate Ads Critically.” The “gist” of the text is that some people view advertisements as useful to consumers while others view them as manipulative; and, since ads are ubiquitous, consumers must know how to critically consider advertisements to avoid spending money unwisely.

Students are supported in comprehending the text through the highlighting of key vocabulary in context, idiomatic expressions and other key phrases, and the posing of questions in the margins; such as, “How does the writer support the claim that people are surrounded by ads? Does this convince you that what she says is true?” and “How do Graydon’s questions help you draw a conclusion about something?” (National Geographic/Hampton Brown, 2003, pp. 499 and 501).

Suggestions for supporting ELLs include previewing the photos, graphs, and pictures in the text to explain what each visual represents, having students read silently as the selection is read on a CD or by the teacher, rephrasing and explaining idiomatic expressions, and defining unfamiliar language, such as *jingles*, *neon*, *billboards*, *logos*, and *blurbs*. Other suggestions designed to support all students include connecting to out-of-school literacy by asking students to answer questions that connect to their own lives in which the key vocabulary words are used; such as, “Name a sports figure or movie star that you have seen in a commercial. Was the ad *persuasive*?” and “What is the funniest commercial you have ever seen? How did it *impact* your opinion of the product?” (National Geographic/Hampton Brown, 2003, pg. 504).

3.4.2 Key differences between curricular materials and genre-based pedagogy

After following the curriculum through Lesson 3 of Unit 6, I set the curricular materials aside in order to begin the genre-based *Reading to Learn* instructional unit. It is noteworthy that *before* being asked to write a persuasive text in the curricular materials, students would have read several more texts identified as persuasive nonfiction. These texts included a poem by Alice Walker entitled “Without Commercials,” an essay by an advertising executive entitled “What’s Wrong with Advertising?,” an essay about the role of minorities in the media entitled, “A Long Way to Go: Minorities and the Media, and an editorial by a college student presenting an opposing viewpoint regarding minorities in the media entitled, “The Color Green.”

In Lessons 18 and 19, the focus shifts away from persuasive nonfiction to nonfiction. The curricular materials present two more texts for students to read: one from PBS entitled, “What is News?” and a *how-to* article entitled “How to Detect Bias in the News” (National

Geographic/Hampton Brown, 2003, pgs. 507-561) before introducing the “writing project” of composing a persuasive essay at the end of the 19-lesson unit.

Thus, with the exception of the inclusion of the task of writing a letter to the editor in Lesson 7, students would not have been asked to write a persuasive text until after Lesson 19. Until that point, the focus of the curricular materials was to scaffold reading comprehension by practicing reading strategies and answering both text-based and inferential questions through both discussion and writing; building vocabulary knowledge through multiple exposures to key words in different contexts; exposing students to a variety of texts around a central topic, and connecting to students’ background experiences and out-of-school literacy practices.

Although such a focus aligns with widely accepted research-based practices in adolescent literacy instruction for diverse learners (Jacobson, Johnson & Lapp, 2011; Walqui & van Lier, 2010) it is markedly distinct from the way that reading and writing instruction are intertwined in a genre-based approach (Christie, 2012; Martin & Rose, 2005, 2008; Rose, 2005).

In particular, the approach to writing instruction in a genre-based approach stands in clear contrast to the approach suggested in the curricular materials published by National Geographic/Hampton Brown, a leading national textbook company. As SFL educational linguists have argued (Christie, 2002, 2012; Colombi & Schleppegrell, 2002; Hyland, 2003, 2007; Martin & Rose, 2005, 2008; Schleppegrell, 2004), writing instruction that does not include a focus on the way that language choices function to realize the genres of schooling leaves the pathway to the attainment of advanced literacy practices invisible to many students. Table 6 notes the key differences between traditional and genre-based approaches to writing instruction.

Table 6. A Comparison of Approaches to Writing Instruction

Framework for Writing Instruction for a Persuasive Essay in Curricular Materials	Framework for Writing in any Genre in a Genre-Based Approach
<p>The teacher's manual suggests that the teacher:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> *identify the writing mode as persuasive; *explain that in persuasive writing, writers state a viewpoint and support it with evidence that persuades, or convinces, readers to agree; *explain to students that they will be writing a persuasive essay using the steps of the writing process (e.g., study the form and prewrite, draft, revise, edit and proofread, publish and present); *explain that writing traits are the characteristics of good writing. All good writing has effective organization; focus and unity; development of ideas; voice and style; and uses the written conventions of language correctly; *explain that voice and style bring writing to life. Tell students that they will use voice to reveal their personality, emotions, and ideas to readers as they explain their argument. They will choose and arrange words in a way that gives their writing a unique style. 	<p>Where a genre-based pedagogy is employed, the teacher, working closely with students:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> *identifies a field of knowledge, a topic or both, for study; *identifies its register values, considering its activities and its language; *introduces the topic to the students with a particular focus on its experiential field and its importance, also considering how, if at all, it relates to other areas of knowledge previously taught and learned; *devotes a series of lessons to teaching and learning about the field, using any relevant resources (e.g., books, videos, films, images, class visits), and steadily building a knowledge of the field, its procedures for discussing questions, and its methods of inquiry; *proposes a target genre for writing; *directs any writing tasks, often by using a model of the target genre for writing, deconstructing it for discussion, and building a metalanguage for discussing the genre, its elements of structure, and their purposes; and *creates opportunity throughout these steps for teaching about any relevant details of the linguistic organization of the text.

(National Geographic/Hampton Brown, 2003) (Christie, 2012, pg. 193)

As can be noted in the above comparison, these approaches differ greatly in the presentation of the generic structure of a persuasive essay, students' use of a model essay, and the identification of the features of a well-written persuasive essay. Further differences include

the way that these two approaches view the writing process itself, the role of the teacher in this process, and the assessment of students' writing.

The present study was motivated by adolescent diverse learners' lack of success in developing control over the writing of academic genres and the research that suggests that genre pedagogy may support these learners in progressing toward mastery of the type of academic writing competency required for success in high school and in post-secondary studies (Christie, 2001, 2007; Colombi & Schleppegrell, 2002; Derewianka, 2003; Gebhard & Harman, 2011; Gebhard, et al., 2008; Schleppegrell, 2004, 2006).

3.5 DATA SOURCES

Throughout the instructional intervention, I collected a variety of data to answer the research questions. These research questions and the data used to address them are summarized in Table 7.

Table 7. Research Questions and Data Sources

Research Questions	Data Sources
RQ1: What is the potential effect of the genre-based <i>Reading to Learn</i> instructional approach on adolescent ELLs' ability to write persuasive essays?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Scores on pretest and posttest persuasive essays on two distinct school-based topics derived from the Performance Criteria and Assessment Tool • Differences in the use of language resources in focal students' pre- and posttest persuasive essays • Exemplars from focal students' independently written persuasive essays
RQ2: How do adolescent ELLs perceive the effect of the genre-based <i>Reading to Learn</i> instructional approach on their writing development?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students' responses to post-instructional unit survey • Follow-up interviews with six focal students regarding their writing of persuasive essays during the instructional unit
RQ3: What are the unique challenges of developing and implementing the genre-based <i>Reading to Learn</i> instructional approach with public high school ELLs in the English as a Second Language classroom?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teacher's reflections on lesson design and implementation informed by students' responses to instructional tasks and activities, revisions to lesson plans, and excerpts of videotapes during the instructional intervention. • Log of institutional factors affecting instruction (e.g., student attendance, end-of-year student activities, teacher's obligation to be out of the classroom).

3.5.1 Pretest

The pretest (see Appendix D) was designed to assess students' ability to write an effective persuasive essay before the instructional intervention. A school-based topic was selected in order for students to be able to write without any instruction or directions beyond the prompt and without doing any research in order to take a position. I administered the pretest to the 20 student participants on April 16, 2012. The prompt was:

During this class period, write a first draft of any essay to persuade the principal to accept your point of view about the following topic:

Writing Prompt:

Your school has a new policy about the use of student planners this year. What is your viewpoint about the use of student planners?

Should students be required to use a planner?
Should students *not* be required to use a planner?

Explain your point of view in an essay that will be read by the school principal. provide specific evidence to support your point of view. Try to persuade the principal to accept your point of view.

Although this prompt was useful in providing a baseline of students' competency in writing a persuasive essay, one notable drawback of this prompt was that it did not align with writing an impersonal, authoritative, academic-style persuasive essay. In addition, this pretest measurement was conducted on students' first draft writing accomplished within one class period; yet, students were unaccustomed to having a short time period to write without being allowed to ask questions as well as to having their first drafts evaluated.

Students expressed these concerns once the pretest prompt and lined paper had been distributed. One student asked, "What if we do not finish?" Another asked, "What if we have many mistakes. Can we use dictionary?" Another asked, "Can we ask you question when we write?" I briefly explained that students should do their best to accomplish responding to the prompt during the class period without asking me any questions and that they should not worry about conventions as this writing exercise simply represented a first draft effort to respond to the prompt.

On the other hand, students' ability to engage in the pretest writing was supported by the fact that they were familiar with the use of student planners. This school provided a planner to each student and required its daily use during the 2011-12 school year. As the teacher, I knew

that some students enjoyed having a planner and used it consistently while others resisted the obligation to carry and use the planner. Thus, I was certain that students could take a position “for or against” the use of student planners and would be able to state reasons for their position.

Students asked no further clarifying questions about the writing prompt and began to write. All of the students completed the pretest within the 42-minute class period.

3.5.2 Post-instructional unit survey

Following Yasuda (2011), I designed a brief post-instructional unit survey (see Appendix E) in an effort to capture students’ perceptions about the way that participating in the *Reading to Learn* instructional unit may have changed their thinking about writing persuasive essays and their ability to do so.

Question one was open-ended and asked, “In your own words, explain what a persuasive essay is and what it is supposed to do.” The next 3 questions were answered using a 4-point Likert scale (e.g., 1 = not at all; 2 = a little; 3 = somewhat; and 4 = a lot). Students were asked to read the following questions and chose the response that best matched their own experience:

2. To what degree did you have experience with writing persuasive essays in English before this instructional unit?
3. Compared with the beginning of the instructional unit, to what degree do you think that you have improved your ability to write a persuasive essay in English?
4. Compared with the beginning of the instructional unit, to what degree do you think that you have changed your way of thinking about writing persuasive essays in English?

The survey contained a final open-ended question that asked those students who had answered *a little, somewhat, or a lot* to question four to write a short answer to the question, “How and why do you think you have changed in the way that you did?”

I administered the post-instructional unit survey on May 30, 2012, and all students completed the survey within that class period. Analysis and interpretation of these data are included in the Data Analysis and Interpretation section.

3.5.3 Posttest

The posttest (see Appendix F) was designed to assess students' ability to write an effective persuasive essay after the instructional intervention as evidenced by their employment of the linguistic resources they had learned to realize the three meanings in a persuasive argument essay (e.g., presenting content and knowledge, conveying an authoritative stance, and writing an organized text) (Schleppegrell, 2006). I selected a second school-based topic that paralleled the prompt in the pretest. That is, the posttest prompt also allowed students to write without any further instruction or directions and without doing any research in order to take a position. I administered the posttest to the 20 student participants on June 1, 2012. The prompt was:

During this class period, write a first draft of an essay to persuade the principal to accept your point of view about the following topic:

Writing Prompt:

Your school had a new lunch detention policy this year. What is your viewpoint about the school's lunch detention policy?

Is the lunch detention policy fair to students?

Is the lunch detention policy *not* fair to students?

Explain your point of view in an essay that will be read by the school principal. Provide specific evidence to support your point of view. Try to persuade the principal to accept your point of view.

As with the pretest prompt, I was confident that students would have an opinion regarding whether the school's lunch detention policy was or was not fair and would be able to

state their position and provide reason(s) for it. This school's policy was that teachers should issue lunch detention for the following infractions: tardiness to class, eating or drinking in class, and/or not reading during homeroom time.

Because I knew these students well, I realized that they would want to try to employ what they had learned during the instructional unit in the posttest writing. That is, I suspected that students were going to express that one class period would not be long enough for them to do a good job writing the posttest essay.

In fact, after I distributed the posttest prompt and lined paper, several students expressed that they were not going to be able to write this essay in one class period. One student said, "We need more time to think how to write." Another asked, "Can we use our binders?" referring to the binders where each student kept all of their work, notes, color-coded list of language tools, model persuasive argument essays, and Performance Criteria and Assessment Tool during the instructional unit. Another student asked, "Can we use the thesaurus you gave us?" "What if I can't think of synonym?" (Each student had been given a thesaurus and a dictionary as a token of appreciation for participation in the study, which I gave them at the beginning of the Individual Construction stage lessons.)

As previously stated, I had already considered this potential dilemma ahead of administering the posttest. As I would be using the same Performance Criteria and Assessment Tool to evaluate these essays as I had used to assess the pretest and the individually written essays about amnesty, I decided that it would not be fair to students to score unfinished essays by only providing the exact same amount of time as I had provided them on the pretest. (It is important to remember that all students indicated that they had finished the pretest at the end of one class period.)

At the same time, I realized the potential for students to write “much better” essays if they were given unlimited time to write. Therefore, I responded, “You may not use your binders, dictionaries, or thesauri. I would like you to do your very best to respond to the prompt within this class period. If necessary, we can take a little time at the beginning of the next class for those who still need to finish.”

Only five students finished writing during this class period on June 1st. The others wrote “not done” on the top of their papers, and I collected all of the work as students left the classroom. At the beginning of the next class period, I returned the “not done” essays to the students and provided them with 15 more minutes to write. All students finished by the end of the extra 15 minutes.

3.5.4 Performance criteria and assessment tool

To provide quantitative data around students’ appropriation of the linguistic resources that function to construe academically-valued persuasive argument essays, I designed a Performance Criteria and Assessment Tool (see Appendix C) that aligned with a functional linguistic text analysis approach (Martin & Rose, 2008; Schleppegrell, 2006). The use of functional linguistic analysis to assess students’ writing differs greatly from traditional assessment tools widely used in the United States (Fang & Wang, 2011; Schleppegrell, 2006).

As Schleppegrell (2006) pointed out, most state English language development standards delineate the components of persuasive and expository texts (e.g., a clear thesis, organized points of support, and counter-arguments) and stipulate that students will be evaluated on various language features (e.g., word choice, transitions, consistent point of view, and organization).

Pointedly, Schleppegrell (2006) argued that such descriptors fail to identify the actual linguistic resources that function to create a thesis statement, present and develop arguments, project a consistent point of view in an authoritative tone, and build a chain of reasoning through the development of each argument paragraph while smoothly linking one paragraph to another. In other words, students and teachers alike are left wondering *how* language works, or which language choices function, to realize a particular writing task, such as a persuasive argument essay, in an academically successful manner (Macken-Horarik, Love, & Unsworth, 2011; Schleppegrell, 2006).

Specifically, Schleppegrell (2005, 2006) fully described two persuasive argument essays written by eleventh grade ELLs from a corpus of 345 argument essays to pinpoint the key linguistic resources that students must employ to display knowledge authoritatively in a well-organized persuasive argument that meets academic expectations. Through a functional linguistic analysis of these essays, Schleppegrell (2006) delineated and explained the key linguistic resources that function to construe ideational, interpersonal, and textual meanings in this genre.

These linguistic resources, which informed the design of the Performance Criteria and Assessment Tool used in this instructional intervention, are briefly described in the following subsections. I further explain the way that this Performance Criteria and Assessment Tool was used for teaching and learning in subsequent chapters in which the specific lessons of each stage of the *Reading to Learn* cycle are described.

3.5.4.1 Realizing ideational meanings

To successfully present content and knowledge (e.g., construe ideational meanings) in a persuasive argument essay, it is important for students to construct a thesis statement that draws

on modality and consequential markers to introduce and support a position (Schleppegrell, 2004, 2006). In the introductory paragraph, nominalization is the key linguistic resource that students can use to both name the arguments to be developed. Nominal structures further serve as a resource for organizing the development of arguments throughout the essay (Schleppegrell, 2006). This ability to construct ideational meanings through nominal structures is an important feature of advanced language development (Christie, 2002; 2012; Schleppegrell, 2004, 2006).

Defining key terms is another feature for realizing ideational meaning in a persuasive argument essay. Employing relational processes (e.g., verbs of *being* or *having*) is a linguistic resource that is useful to students in defining key terms in this genre. This linguistic resource allows students to state what something *is*, *means*, *indicates*, *includes*, *involves*, or *is associated with* (Schleppegrell, 2006).

3.5.4.2 Realizing interpersonal meanings

To write an academically-valued persuasive argument essay, students need to employ the language resources that construct evaluation and judgment in an authoritative way (Christie & Derewianka, 2008; Martin, 2002b; Schleppegrell, 2004, 2006). Such resources include *modality* which allows students to construct judgments about possibility and necessity that are important for writing in an authoritative, reasoned way.

In order to construct an explicit point of view, students can also draw on *markers of consequential meanings* (Schleppegrell, 2004, 2006). Through the use of consequential markers (e.g., for this reason, as a result, leads to, because), students can link claims and evidence and express judgments about both sides of an issue.

Student writers can present their own viewpoint and include the voice of others through the linguistic resource of *projection* by employing metal and verbal processes (e.g., believe,

think, state, proclaim). Introducing the perspectives of self and others through projection enables students to provide evidence that helps to make an argument (Schleppegrell, 2006).

3.5.4.3 Realizing textual meanings

To meet the academic expectations for structuring a persuasive argument, students must learn to begin with an introduction that names the arguments to be developed, develop these arguments in separate paragraphs, and write a conclusion that reiterates the three arguments (Christie & Derewianka, 2008; Schleppegrell, 2004, 2006). The linguistic resources that function to realize an organized text include *thematic progression* and *internal connectors* (e.g., conjunctive links and cohesive demonstratives and other pronouns) (Christie, 2012; Christie & Derewianka, 2008; Schleppegrell, 2004, 2006).

Thematic progression is a language resource that allows students to present information that is *given* at the beginning of a clause, present information that is *new* at the end of the clause, and restate the *new* information as the point of departure in the next clause (Christie & Dreyfus, 2007; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). Employing this linguistic resource contributes to constructing a successful flow of information.

Students can also develop a well-structured text by using *conjunctive links* (e.g., first, finally) to signal the unfolding of the argument and *referents* such as cohesive demonstratives and other pronouns to point back to what has already been written. By using both nominal structures and internal connectors, students can build a chain of reasoning throughout a persuasive argument essay (Christie & Derewianka, 2008; Schleppegrell, 2004, 2006).

3.5.4.4 Designing the performance criteria and assessment tool

Based on the extensive research of SFL educational linguists (e.g., Christie & Derewianka, 2008; Christie, 2012; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Martin, 2002b; Schleppegrell, 2004, 2006), I designed the Performance Criteria and Assessment Tool (see Appendix C) which delineates the specific linguistic resources that function to realize the three kinds of meanings (e.g., ideational, interpersonal, and textual) in a persuasive argument essay. The dual purpose of this Performance Criteria and Assessment Tool was to guide students to write in an academically-valued way and to serve as a measurement of their success in appropriating the linguistic resources that are most effective for writing well in this genre.

In order to communicate the three kinds of meanings in more “student-friendly” terms (Schleppegrell, 2006), I labeled ideational meanings *Presentation of Content and Knowledge: Realizing Purpose*; interpersonal meanings as *Projection of Authoritative Stance: Meeting Audience Expectations*; and textual meanings as *Construction of a Well-Organized Text: Building Coherence*. I then listed the specific linguistic resources that are functional for realizing each type of meaning next to these labels.

Finally, I included a 4-point scale for assigning points to measure students’ appropriation of each of the 14 linguistic resources listed across the three types of meanings for a total of 56 possible points. A score of 4 meant “present, used correctly and very effectively;” a 3 “present, used correctly and somewhat effectively;” a 2 “present but not correctly or effectively used;” and 1 “not present.”

I utilized this Performance Criteria and Assessment Tool to assess students’ writing on the pretest and posttest essays, and the individually written essays for or against amnesty completed during the Individual Construction stage of the *Reading to Learn* cycle. I include a

discussion of efforts to establish interrater reliability with the use of this tool in the Data Analysis and Interpretation section.

3.5.5 Follow-up interviews

In line with the inclusion of an ethnographic approach (Walford, 2008) and in order to triangulate the pre- and posttest results as well as the post-instructional unit survey results (Yasuda, 2011), I designed a follow-up interview protocol tool (see Appendix G). The follow-up interviews served to glean rich information about the six focal students' perception of their writing throughout the instructional intervention as well as their opinion about the way that participating in the *Reading to Learn* lessons may have changed their capacity to write an effective, academic-style persuasive argument essay.

The follow-up interviews were conducted by a fellow doctoral student with the six focal students on June 4, 2012, in the high school library. The six focal students all agreed to participate in the follow-up interviews. Prior to the follow-up interviews, these six focal students were told only that the interviews would be recorded and that they would be asked questions that would allow them to reflect on the writing they had done throughout the instructional unit.

The six focal students were given a schedule to report to the library at intervals during periods one to five on June 4th. Each interview took approximately 20 minutes. The interviewer followed the script of the protocol tool, reading the same introduction and asking the same questions to each of the six focal students while recording their responses.

The six focal students were first asked to compare their pretest and posttest essays about the use of student planners and lunch detention as well as to explain whether their writing had improved from the first essay to the second and why or why not. If the answer to this question

was affirmative, students were asked to specifically explain how their writing improved from the pretest to the posttest essay.

Next, the six focal students were given a copy of their persuasive argument essay about amnesty which they had written independently during the Individual Construction lessons. The six focal students were asked to respond to questions about the topic of the essay, the purpose for writing the essay, the audience for the essay, and what exactly they did as the writer to successfully present knowledge, convey their viewpoint authoritatively, include a counter-argument, and create a well-organized essay.

Finally, the six focal students were asked to explain their thinking about how successful the reading and writing unit was in helping them learn the structure of a well-written persuasive essay, understand the language tools that are useful for writing a well-written persuasive essay, and build their capacity to write a well-written persuasive essay. These students were asked if there was anything else that they wished to add and were thanked for taking the time to talk about their writing.

These follow-up interviews were transcribed by a graduate student, providing qualitative data about students' learning and experiences during the *Reading to Learn* lessons. The use of this qualitative data is included in the Data Analysis and Interpretation section.

3.5.6 Exemplars of focal students' work

I planned and implemented several instructional tasks and activities that all students completed both in the classroom and at home during the *Reading to Learn* lessons. Research suggests that appropriately using linguistic resources, such as modality and nominalizations, is especially challenging for second language learners, indicating the need for a *visible pedagogy* that affords

students with opportunities to build awareness of and practice using these language tools (Schleppegrell, 2001, 2004, 2006; Christie, & Dreyfus, 2007; Macken-Horarik, 2006a; Rose, 2005).

Thus, I designed instructional tasks to support students in exploring modality, creating nominalizations, and in writing sentences that combine nominalizations, modals, and causal links in order to both state and judge the result of a nominalization. Other instructional tasks included changing spoken sentences into more authoritative ones and converting paragraphs of spoken language into academic language, another particularly challenging language task for adolescent ELLs (Macken-Horarik, 2006a; Schleppegrell, 2001, 2004; Christie, 2002).

In addition, based on the notion that genre pedagogy interweaves a theory of language (Halliday, 1994; Halliday & Matthiessen) with a sociocultural theory of learning (Vygotsky, 1978) and the well-researched need for adolescent ELLs to share and explain their thinking (Christie, 2012; Derewianka, 2003; Gibbons, 2002, 2006; Walqui & van Lier, 2010), I included frequent opportunities for students to interact with one another around the instructional foci. For example, students worked with partners to discuss the language tools evident in a paragraph of one of the model persuasive essays, to explain what they did to change spoken language into academic language, and to comment on the language tools their partners used in the concluding paragraph of their independently written essays to restate the arguments and reconnect to the thesis statement.

In order to exemplify the instructional tasks and activities in which students engaged throughout the instructional unit through an ethnographic approach (Walford, 2008), I chose to highlight and describe cultural artifacts (e.g., exemplars of work) from the six focal students who represent a spectrum of different genders, ages, grade levels, and cultural and linguistic

backgrounds of the larger group. To support a logical, organized portrayal of the teaching and learning processes during the instructional intervention, I include the descriptions and explanations of the focal students' exemplars within the lessons in which they occurred in subsequent chapters. All instructional tasks and activities are also included as appendices.

3.5.7 Teacher/researcher's reflections and videotaped excerpts

An important goal of this investigation was to describe the unique challenges of implementing the genre-based *Reading to Learn* instructional approach with urban public high school ELLs in an ESL classroom. This goal was warranted by calls for research to investigate and describe the use of genre pedagogy in K-12 contexts with second language learners (Gebhard & Harmon, 2011; Martin, 2009; Rose, 2005).

As both the teacher and the researcher in this study, I used excerpts of videotapes recorded during the instructional intervention and my own post-lesson reflections to inform a rich description of the challenges of implementing the genre-based *Reading to Learn* framework in a secondary urban public high school ESL classroom with students of various ages, cultural and linguistic backgrounds, educational histories, and time in a U.S. school.

To capture salient moments during the instructional intervention, segments of several lessons in the Preparing to Read and Detailed Reading stages of the instructional intervention were videotaped by an educational assistant in this ESL classroom using an Apple Ipod 32GB issued to teacher leaders in this high school for the purpose of reflecting on one's own instructional practices. Since it was not possible to write observational field notes while teaching the lessons, these videotapes afforded me the opportunity to review and reflect on the teaching and learning processes that occurred (Walford, 2008).

I used these daily reflections on the specific lessons of each stage of the *Reading to Learn* cycle gleaned from the videotaped episodes to exemplify and explain the challenges of implementing a genre-based pedagogy with a diverse group of adolescent ELLs in the context of an ESL class in a public urban high school. Excerpts from the videotapes that exemplify these challenges are included within the chapters that describe the lessons corresponding to each stage of the *Reading to Learn* cycle.

3.5.8 Log of institutional activities affecting study implementation

Several institutional factors contributed to the unique challenges of implementing the instructional intervention in a large urban public high school. These factors included:

- a restriction not to begin the instructional intervention until all PSSA testing had been completed;
- the end-of-the-school-year student activities that occurred during the instructional intervention;
- the days I was not in the school due to professional development obligations;
- the pre-graduation activities and earlier end of the school year for the ten student participants who were seniors; and
- student absenteeism, particularly of some seniors, at the end of the school year.

The institutional interruptions that occurred during this study are documented within the chapters describing the lessons in each stage of the *Reading to Learn* cycle.

3.6 DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

The data collected in this study were analyzed using both quantitative and qualitative methods in order to answer the three research questions:

RQ1: What is the potential effect of the genre-based *Reading to Learn* instructional approach on adolescent ELLs' ability to write persuasive essays?

RQ2: How do adolescent ELLs perceive the effect of the genre-based *Reading to Learn* instructional approach on their writing development?

RQ3: What are the unique challenges of implementing the genre-based *Reading to Learn* instructional approach with public high school ELLs in the English as a Second Language classroom?

The quantitative and qualitative data analyses are described in the follow sections.

3.6.1 Quantitative data analyses

3.6.1.1 Pretest and posttest student essays

The 20 student participant's pretest and posttest essays were analyzed using a functional linguistic approach (Fang & Wang, 2011; Macken-Horarik, 2006b, 2011; Schleppegrell, 2006). By using functional linguistic analysis, any text can be analyzed and described in terms of the way that the constellation of linguistic resources function to convey content (e.g., ideational meaning), convey an evaluative stance (e.g., interpersonal meaning), and construct an organized text (e.g., textual meaning) (Macken-Horarik, 2006b). The 20 student participants' essays were analyzed using the Performance Criteria and Assessment tool, grounded in a functional linguistic approach (Schleppegrell, 2006).

The difference scores in the 20 student participants' pretest and posttest persuasive essays, obtained by using the Performance Criteria and Assessment Tool, were analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistical analyses. The difference scores were analyzed for each of the three major meaning types (e.g., presentation of content knowledge, conveying an authoritative stance, and writing a well-organized text) as well as for the total score.

Descriptive statistics include the mean, median, standard deviation, and minimum and maximum difference scores between the pretest and posttest persuasive essays for each of the three overarching meanings delineated on the Performance Criteria and Assessment Tool as well as for the pretest and posttest total scores. These results are reported and explained in Chapter 9, Findings.

Using SPSS, the inferential but nonparametric Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test was conducted to investigate whether the difference scores between the pretest and posttest for each of the three meaning types as well as difference scores between the pretest and posttest on the total scores, obtained by using the Performance Criteria and Assessment Tool, were statistically significant.

The Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test is the nonparametric test equivalent to the dependent t-test. It is used to compare two sets of scores that come from the same participants to investigate any change in scores from one time point to another (<https://statistics.laerd.com/spss-tutorials/wilcoxon-signed-rank-test-using-spss-statistics.php>). The Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test was also chosen as it does not assume normality in the data. As I had predicted that the distribution of difference scores would not be normal due to my hypothesis that most students would make noticeable improvements in their writing of persuasive essays between pretest and posttest, the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test was appropriate.

In order to corroborate the results of the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test, a Paired Samples T-Test was also performed using SPSS. These results matched those obtained using the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test. Each of these statistical analyses indicated a *p* value of less than .001 for the difference scores pre- to posttest for each of the three meaning types as well as for the total scores. These results are reported and explained in Chapter 9, Findings.

3.6.1.2 Interrater reliability

In an effort to establish interrater reliability regarding use of the Performance Criteria and Assessment Tool, five pretest essays and five posttest essays were independently scored using this tool by three raters, the teacher/researcher (e.g., myself) and two graduate students. All three raters were familiar with functional linguistic text analysis, grounded in systemic functional linguistics (SFL).

As the teacher/researcher, I scored all of the pretest persuasive essays using the Performance Criteria and Assessment Tool. All of these scores were extremely low (e.g., total scores between 16 and 25 points out of 56 possible points). Therefore, I chose five of the “higher scoring” essays for the co-raters to score so that there would be a space for discussion about the way that these students appropriated the 14 linguistic tools, delineated on the Performance Criteria and Assessment Tool, that functioned to realize each of the three overarching meanings in their essays. In other words, the intention was to avoid “inflating” the interrater reliability by randomly choosing “lower scoring” essays and having all three raters assign a score of a “1” (e.g., “not present”) or a “2” (e.g., “present, but not correctly or effectively used) for each of the 14 linguistic tools, thus giving the appearance that interrater reliability was very high.

The two co-raters scored five “higher scoring” essays on May 2, 2012. Table 8 reports the total scores for each of these five essays assigned by the teacher/researcher and the two co-raters.

Table 8. Pretest Total Scores by Three Raters

Student Essay ID#	Score Assigned by Teacher/Researcher (Rater 1)	Score Assigned by Rater 2	Score Assigned by Rater 3
4357345	25	22	23
4484789	25	23	22
4464532	19	19	22
4557530	20	19	18
4501306	21	19	19

The appropriateness of this decision to use five “higher scoring” essays was confirmed in consultation with a statistician from the Office of Measurement of Effective Teaching (OMET) at the University of Pittsburgh on May 25, 2012. At that time, this statistician also explained that a correlational test to indicate interrater reliability would not be appropriate with only ten co-rated essays (e.g., five pretest essays already co-rated on May 2, 2012 and five more that would be co-rated on June 5, 2012).

The two co-raters had agreed to score five pretest and five posttest essays. Since the five pretest essays were already scored by all three raters and since time did not permit for more essays to be added for interrater reliability purposes, I could not change this number. However, as I had hypothesized that there would be substantial improvement in students’ essays pre- to posttest, the statistician recommended that I randomly choose five posttest essays for co-rating since random selection was likely to result in wider variability in scores, allowing for an accurate and useful portrayal of agreement or disagreement among the three raters.

After all 20 students completed the posttest essays, I scored these essays using the Performance Criteria and Assessment Tool. I then randomly chose five of these essays for scoring by the other two raters by asking another teacher to place all of the essays face side down on a table and to select five. These five essays were independently scored by the two co-raters on June 5, 2012. Table 9 reports these results.

Table 9. Posttest Total Scores by Three Raters

Student Essay ID#	Score Assigned by Teacher/Researcher (Rater 1)	Score Assigned by Rater 2	Score Assigned by Rater 3
4507924	34	28	35
4373499	31	38	34
4501314	37	35	40
4484827	43	37	46
4373502	39	44	41

To visually represent the amount of agreement among the three raters, I include the following figures which indicate agreement between rater 1 and rater 2, rater 1 and rater 3, and rater 2 and rater 3:

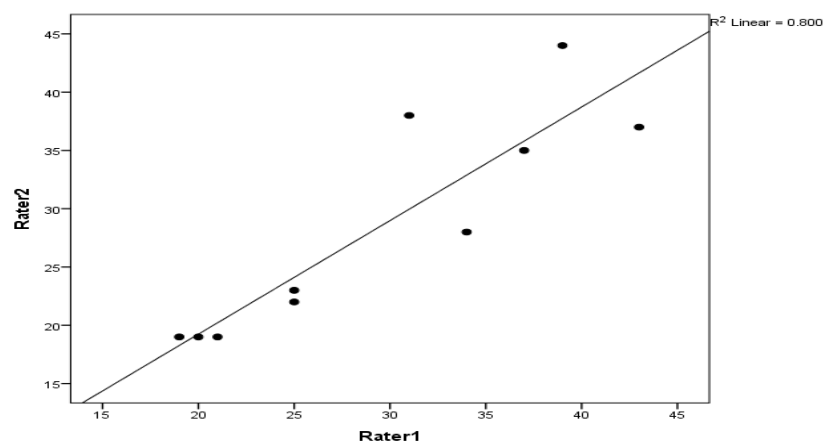


Figure 6. Agreement Between Rater 1 and Rater 2

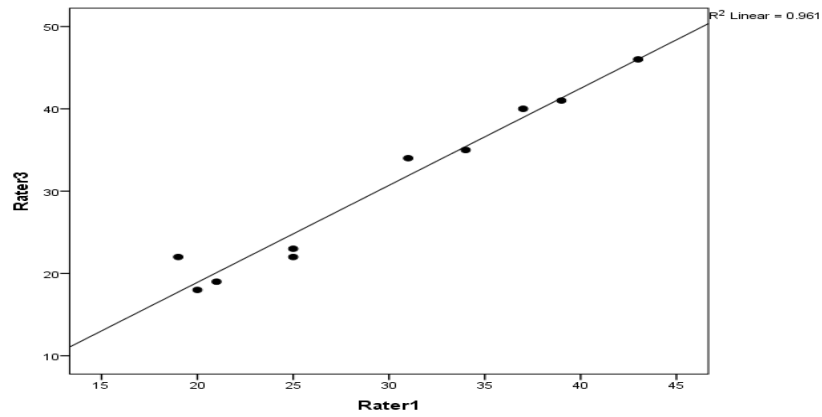


Figure 7. Agreement Between Rater 1 and Rater 3

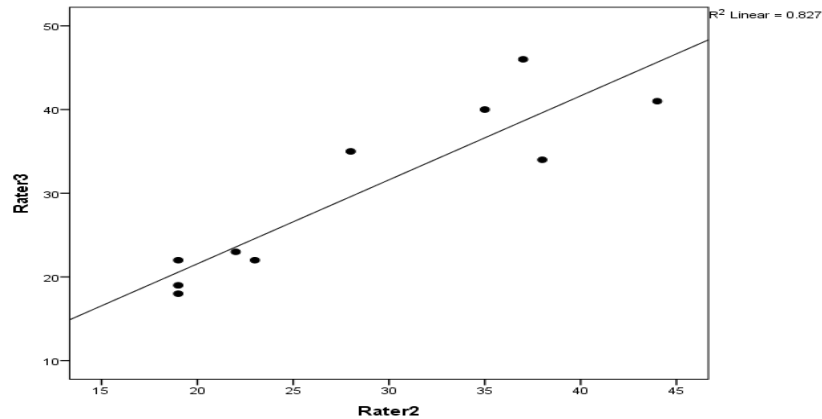


Figure 8. Agreement Between Rater 2 and Rater 3

The circles at the bottom left of each graph indicate pairs of ratings between the two raters listed on each axis for the five pretest essay scores, and the circles at the top right of each graph indicate pairs of rating between the two raters listed on each axis for the five posttest essay scores.

These graphs indicate a clear distinction among the pairs of pretest and posttest ratings as well as stronger agreement on the ratings assigned to posttest essays. In other words, since all of the scores on the pretest essays were quite low, no distinction among ratings emerged. However, even though the three raters' scores on the posttest essays differed more widely than those

assigned to pretest essays, this difference indicated closer agreement due to the fact that there was more distinction in the students' writing on the five posttest essays.

Stated in another way, there was more agreement among raters on the posttest essay scores regarding which essays were “better” and which were “worse.” This distinction between “better” and “worse” was more evident on the posttest essays as the scores were not as closely clustered on the low end as they were on the pretest essays.

Overall, the scores assigned by three raters on both the pretest and posttest essays indicated that the Performance Criteria and Assessment Tool served its function reasonably well to distinguish between the pretest and posttest scores and that there was acceptable agreement among the raters.

3.6.2 Qualitative data analyses

3.6.2.1 Post-instructional unit surveys

Following Yasuda (2011), a five-item post-instructional unit survey (see Appendix E) was included to assess students' familiarity with writing persuasive argument essays before and after the instructional intervention as well as their perceptions about the way their competency in and thinking about writing in this genre may have changed after participation in the instructional intervention.

The first and last items on the post-instructional unit survey invited students to write brief responses to the questions, “In your own words, explain what a persuasive essay is and what it is supposed to do,” and “If you answered *a little*, *somewhat*, or *a lot* to question number 4, please write a brief answer to this question: “How and why do you think you have changed in the way

that you did?” Responses to these questions by the six focal students, who represent the class as a whole, are summarized in Chapter 9, Findings.

3.6.2.2 Focal students’ persuasive argument essays for or against amnesty

To measure students’ appropriation of the linguistic resources that function to construe the three major meaning types in persuasive argument essays, I used the Performance Criteria and Assessment tool to evaluate students’ “for or against” amnesty essays, which were written across four class periods during the Individual Construction stage of the *Reading to Learn* cycle.

Although no pre- to posttest comparisons could be made given that students wrote only one essay independently and were permitted to use resources, including the Performance Criteria and Assessment Tool, to guide their writing, excerpts from focal students’ essays provided rich data suggesting the success of the instructional intervention in improving students’ competency to write academically-valued persuasive argument essays.

These excerpts from the six focal students’ “for or against” amnesty essays provided further evidence for the way that students improved their competency for writing in this genre. These excerpts are included in Chapter 9, Findings.

3.6.2.3 Follow-up interviews with focal students

Responses from follow-up interviews (Yasuda, 2011) with the six focal students were used to interpret students’ own metacognition about their writing on the pretest and posttest persuasive essays as well as on the independently written “for or against” amnesty essays. In addition, the follow-up interview was designed to ascertain students’ perceptions about how successful the

instructional unit was in helping them to understand and employ the linguistic tools that function to produce an academically-valued persuasive argument essay.

These data served to triangulate the six focal students' scores obtained by using the Performance Criteria and Assessment Tool on the pretest and posttest essays and the “for or against” amnesty essays. In addition, responses to the follow-up interview questions corroborated the open-ended responses on the post-instructional unit survey for these six students. In other words, the six focal students' detailed explanations about the linguistic features of persuasive argument essays as evident in their own writing as well as their explanations about the usefulness of the instructional unit aligned with the data obtained from another data source.

This alignment of results from the various data sources is described in Chapter 9, Findings.

4.0 THE BUILDING FIELD STAGE

4.1 THE PURPOSE OF THE BUILDING FIELD STAGE

The purpose of the Building Field stage of the *Reading to Learn* cycle is to familiarize students with the background knowledge, or field, that is necessary for accessing a text in the selected target genre (e.g., the persuasive argument essay).

For the instructional intervention in the current study, I designed a curriculum unit based on the topic of amnesty for undocumented immigrants. I chose this topic for its potential relevance and interest to the young adult student participants. This topic also represented a currently controversial issue in the United States. Hence, it was a useful topic for taking a stance for or against amnesty for undocumented immigrants. Additionally, no instructional attention had been given to this topic during the school year with these participants.

To frame a curriculum unit around a specific topic to be debated (e.g., amnesty for undocumented immigrants), Building Field lessons involve a series of readings around this central topic. These readings can include factual texts that provide important background information about the core topic and persuasive texts that present “for and against” arguments as well as multi-modal texts, such as videos (Rose & Martin, 2012).

It is important to note that, given the limited time period for implementing this instructional intervention, I did not design the Building Field lessons to progress through all of the stages of the *Reading to Learn* cycle (e.g., Preparing to Read, Detailed Reading, Joint Construction, and Individual Construction). Rather, the primary purpose of the Building Field lessons described in this chapter was to build students' background knowledge around the issue of whether amnesty should be granted to undocumented immigrants.

Importantly, although I did not create lessons that progressed through the entire *Reading to Learn* cycle in the Building Field lessons, I designed background-building lessons that were aligned with central tenets of the *Reading to Learn* framework: (a) map instruction onto the reading pedagogy strategies (e.g., Prepare, Focus, Identify, Affirm, and Elaborate), (b) keep learner's task as the central element in lesson design, (c) make the entire language-learning task explicit by guidance through interaction in the context of shared experience, and (d) prepare all students to read curriculum texts and to use what they have learned from reading in their writing (Rose & Martin, 2012).

In addition, I embedded two other key principles of the *Reading to Learn* framework into the design of the Building Field lessons: weaving Knowledge about Language (KAL) into literacy instruction and employing a metalanguage shared by teachers and students for introducing KAL through reading and writing tasks (Rose & Martin, 2012).

These Building Field lessons took place from April 11 to April 24, 2012 and are described in the following sections.

4.2 BUILDING FIELD LESSONS

4.2.1 Text selection for the building field lessons

Finding texts that presented the key factors that informed both sides of the issue of whether amnesty should be granted to undocumented immigrants proved challenging. These texts needed to provide adequate explanation of both sides of the amnesty issue, be accessible and appropriate for adolescent ELLs, and be short enough to accomplish the goal of building background knowledge about the amnesty topic in the limited number of instructional days available.

After searching in books and online, I came across a series of five brief texts about amnesty on the eHow website (<http://www.ehow.com>). These texts explored and explained the key factors that shape the current controversy about whether amnesty should be granted to undocumented immigrants.

In addition, these texts were written by various professionals (e.g., scholars, lawyers, psychologists, and leaders of nongovernmental organizations) with the general public as the intended audience. Therefore, the texts contained technical and abstract terms as well as examples of persuasive language, making them challenging and interesting for adolescent ELLs yet brief enough for deconstruction through guided interaction in a series of Building Field lessons.

I also encountered a video produced by entitled *Roots of Migration* (Barton, 2009) which explores the reasons why many undocumented immigrants choose to make the journey to the United States. All of these texts, except for the video, are included as Appendices. In the following sections, I describe the instructional tasks and activities of the Building Field lessons related to these six texts.

4.2.2 What is immigration amnesty?

I began the Building Field lessons with a text entitled “What is an Immigration Amnesty?” (<http://www.eHow.com>) (see Appendix H). This text provided three brief, paragraph-level definitions and explanations of amnesty and framed the current debate surrounding this issue. The three paragraphs, or mini-texts, were written by three different scholars and professionals in the field of immigration and immigrants’ rights.

To prepare students for reading this first text, I verbally summarized the entire text in *everyday, commonsense language* (Martin & Rose, 2005; Rose & Martin, 2012) that all students could understand. I explained that the one-page text included three mini-texts of one paragraph each, written by three different authors. These authors defined the term *amnesty* and explained *the act of giving amnesty*. I further explained that reading each text would help students to understand what amnesty has to do with undocumented immigrants as well as why the idea of granting amnesty to undocumented immigrants is an issue about which many people in the United States currently have strong feelings.

I stated that I would read the first author’s text while students read along silently and that students would then read the second and third mini-texts with a partner. I asked students to mark any words, phrases, or sentences that they didn’t understand as I read. After listening to and reading the first mini-text, the students required “everyday language, commonsense explanations” (Martin & Rose, 2005; Rose & Martin, 2012) for the following words and phrases: *amnesia, in the context, status, unlawfully, recipient, overlooks, the textbook example, undeniable, and the act’s core provision*.

I applied the reading strategies embodied in the *Reading to Learn* framework in order to explain such terms in a way that students could understand and to integrate language learning

with reading instruction. That is, I first focused students' attention on identifying a specific word, affirmed the response, and elaborated. Although classroom discourse was not the focus of this instructional intervention, I provide the example below to illustrate the way that the reading strategies embedded in the *Reading to Learn* framework were employed throughout the Building Field lessons to support both reading comprehension and language learning.

Teacher	Focus	Which word in the sentence, "Amnesty provides a simple, powerful undeniable benefit to the recipient," means <i>a person who receives</i> (I wrote the word <i>receives</i> for students to see).
Student	Identify	I think <i>recipient</i> .
Teacher	Affirm	That's correct.
	Elaborate	A <i>recipient</i> is "a person who receives something." For example, Kaw Poe (pseudonym) was the <i>recipient</i> of a scholar/athlete award last year for being such a great student and an awesome soccer player. He received an award for his academic and athletic skills, so he was the <i>recipient</i> of the award.

After working through the other words and phrases that the students had marked in a similar manner, the students read the other two mini-texts with a partner while again noting confusing words or phrases. These words and phrases included *wiping the slate clean*, *the term is loaded*, *law-abiding society*, *advocates*, *political hot potato*, and *proponents*. I used the Focus-Identify-Affirm-Elaborate strategy when sensible to do so and provided direct elaborations (Rose and Martin, 2012) for the other words and phrases.

After guiding students through reading and unpacking the vocabulary and concepts about amnesty in this text, students worked with partners to develop written answers to five questions about the text (see Appendix I) while I circulated to answer students' questions or provide further elaborations. This literacy and language learning task provided students with more

engagement around the vocabulary and key ideas in this text through guided joint practice (Rose & Martin, 2012).

For instance, to complete this task students were asked to define *amnesty* in their own words, to imagine how amnesty could be a “simple, powerful, and undeniable benefit to the recipient,” and to consider whether the Immigration Reform and Control Act of 1986 encouraged or discouraged undocumented immigrants from continuing to enter the United States. In addition, students were asked to explain whether the second author’s statement that “We are meant to be a law-abiding society, but we are not really playing by our own rules” would be considered a statement for or against amnesty. Finally, students were asked to brainstorm a list of other *political hot potato* issues currently debated in the media.

The following responses, written by one of the focal students, Htoo, a ninth grade Burmese male, and his partner illustrate the way that students understood the concepts and vocabulary in this text. Htoo and his partner wrote that amnesty means, “Become a legal person even though you come unlawfully.” This pair of students explained that amnesty benefits undocumented immigrants as, “It will change them from illegal person to legal person and they can be permanent in the country.”

Htoo and his partner also decided that the Immigration Reform and Control Act of 1986 “encouraged many immigrant to enter U.S. illegally because they expect to become legal immigrants.” These two students identified the statement “We are meant to be a law-abiding society, but we are not really playing by our own rules” as against amnesty “because following the laws is important in the society and undocumented immigrants already breaking the law.”

In a whole-class share-out for the last question about *political hot potato* issues, students offered several examples of currently debated, controversial topics. These examples included

gay rights, “if you can have gun or not,” which I renamed as *gun ownership, taxes*, and “getting the gas from ground,” which I restated as *gas drilling or fracking*. One student, who was enrolled in an elective class on women’s studies suggested, “What about if women can decide if they want to try not to have baby or if they want to keep baby when they are pregnant?” I renamed that issue as *abortion rights or reproductive rights*.

To elaborate further and to introduce Knowledge About Language (KAL) into the lesson, I asked students to imagine holding a very hot potato in their hands and to say what they would do with that steaming hot potato. Students responded, *drop* and *throw*, and I explained that the expression *political hot potato* was a metaphor for issues that people and politicians don’t want to *hold onto* long enough to solve. These issues are *tossed around* or *debated* with the result that people often do not reach agreement about how to deal with these issues, as is the case with amnesty for undocumented immigrants.

I complimented the students for having understood an initial text about the issue of amnesty and why it is a currently debated *political hot potato* in the United States.

4.2.3 The advantages of amnesty

In the next lesson in the Building Field stage, students read a text entitled “The Advantages of Amnesty” (http://www.ehow.com/info_8260083_advantages-amnesty.html) (see Appendix J).

To prepare students to read, I explained that this text was written by a lawyer and began with an introductory paragraph asserting that entering the United States illegally is considered a crime that can be punished by sending the illegal person back to his or her country, which is called *deportation*. I further explained that illegal entry into the United States can also be punished by being sent to jail or by both being imprisoned and then deported. I further

summarized that in the introduction, this author informed readers that granting amnesty is one idea that has been proposed for dealing with the millions of undocumented immigrants in the United States and then went on to outline five advantages, or good things, about this idea or proposal.

I read the brief introduction while students read along silently, and we discussed the final sentence, “Although this is a politically contentious issue, proponents of granting amnesty to undocumented immigrants argue that there are several advantages to granting amnesty” (www.eHow.com). I asked students to recall whether the word *proponents* referred to people who are for or against an idea. The response was, “For.” I then asked which word, which had appeared in the previous lesson’s text, meant the opposite of the word *proponents*, that is people who are “against” a certain idea. One student recalled the word *opponents*.

I focused students by asking them to find a synonym for the phrase *political hot potato* in the sentence, “Although this is a politically contentious issue, proponents of granting amnesty to undocumented immigrants argue there are several advantages to granting amnesty.” Several students responded, “Politically contentious issue,” and I affirmed that *political hot potato issues* can be defined as “contentious or controversial issues.”

To elaborate, I wrote *contentious = controversial* at the Elmo for students to see and restated that *contentious* or *controversial issues* are ones that people generally have strong feelings about one way or the other. I further elaborated that these strong feelings generally divide people into proponents, or people who support an idea, and opponents, or people who are against an idea. I emphasized that contentious issues generate a lot of controversy, or debate, on TV, on the radio, on the Web, and in newspapers.

I also invited students to pronounce the words *contentious* and *controversial* after me a few times. We also spent a few moments studying the two different spelling patterns for the sound /sh/ in these two adjectives, thereby connecting spelling to students' understanding of meanings in context, a strategy that Rose and Martin (2012) recommended as particularly useful for ELLs.

Students then worked with partners to read the five brief paragraphs with subheadings (e.g., The United States is a Nation of Immigrants, Immigrants Increase Diversity, Immigrants Take Undesirable Jobs, Amnesty Would Boost the Economy, and Amnesty encourages Legal Immigration) that outlined the advantages to granting amnesty to undocumented immigrants. Students were asked to annotate any unfamiliar words and phrases or confusing sentences. In response to students' annotations, I explained the terms *abject poverty*, *perpetuates*, *increases transparency*, *boost the economy*, and *more completely integrate* by employing combinations of the Focus, Identify, Affirm, and Elaborate sequence.

In addition to these words and phrases, two sentences required a commonsense explanation: (1) "Under this theory, once undocumented workers become documented through the amnesty process, they will be better protected and the industries they work in will be more accountable," and (2) "Amnesty would also allow undocumented workers to bargain collectively and assert their rights to employers without fear of deportation" (www.eHow.com). I explained the meaning of these sentences in commonsense terms that all students could understand.

In keeping with my central purpose to build background about the amnesty issue in these Building Field lessons, I chose not to provide a lengthy explanation of the way that the author used language as a tool to create meanings in sentences such as these two example sentences. In other words, at this point, I chose not to explain that, in the second sentence above, the author

began with a nominal structure (e.g., *amnesty*) and used a modal and causal link (e.g., *would allow workers to bargain and assert*) as well as evaluative language (e.g., *assert, rights, without fear*) in order to convey her stance in an authoritative way by naming a thing, linking it to a result, and judging this result (Schleppegrell, 2006).

This instructional decision was also made based on the plan to include explicit attention to these linguistic resources and build a metalanguage for teaching and learning about these language tools in the lessons designed to guide students to read and write academically-valued persuasive argument essays through following the entire *Reading to Learn* cycle. These lessons are described in Chapters 5 through 8.

After discussing the unfamiliar words, phrases, and sentences in “The Advantages of Amnesty” text, students worked in pairs to complete the task (see Appendix K) of identifying which of the claims about the advantages of amnesty they considered to be the most powerful and explaining their thinking. In addition, as a connection to prior learning in the standard curricular materials about evaluating sources, this task asked students to consider the reliability of these claims and to explain whether the arguments were trustworthy.

In a whole-class share-out near the end of the lesson, a few pairs of students shared their responses. For example, Asha, a ninth grade female focal student from Somalia, and her partner explained that the argument that granting amnesty was advantageous to the United States due to the success of the historical trend for welcoming immigrants was the most powerful. Asha had written, “I think the first claim is the most powerful because the most important reason for undocumented immigrants to come to the U.S. is to start a better life.” In evaluation of the trustworthiness of the arguments, Asha had written, “I think these five arguments for amnesty are

reliable because it (meaning the examples offered to support each argument) is happening in reality.”

To end the lesson, I asked the students if reading this text had persuaded them that amnesty would be a good response to the concern about the millions of undocumented immigrants currently living in the United States. Several students replied that they weren’t sure given that they had only learned “what is good” about amnesty thus far and that they didn’t yet know “the other side.” I replied that, in fact, the homework was to complete the last part of the day’s worksheet by writing a list of potential reasons why many people are opponents of granting amnesty to undocumented immigrants.

4.2.4 Roots of migration

With a substitute teacher on April 17th, students watched a 20-minute video entitled *Roots of Migration* (Barton, 2009). The video was mainly in English with some speech in Spanish. However, the entire video was subtitled in English, allowing the students to view, listen to and read this video text.

This video served to further build knowledge of the field around the issue of amnesty for undocumented immigrants by portraying the journey of a delegation of U.S. citizens who traveled to a small community in Oaxaca, Mexico to explore both the root causes for migration to the United States as well as how this constant migration has affected Mexican communities.

After the video, students worked with a partner to complete a task about the central issues presented in the video (see Appendix L). To complete this task, students collaborated to list the reasons that often drive people from Mexico and Central America to migrate to the United States

as well as to explain how this migration can be both *painful* and *a relief* to those who make this choice.

In the video, both U.S. and Mexican scholars also explained the link between trade policies (e.g., the North American Free Trade Agreement, or NAFTA) and the decision by many Latino farmers and workers, particularly from rural areas, to attempt to enter the United States illegally. On the worksheet, students were asked to write a few sentences to explain this connection between trade and migration.

Another topic in this video was the positive and negative impact of migration on Mexican communities, which students compared in a t-chart on the worksheet. Finally, students wrote a short response to the question, “What do undocumented immigrants *lose* even if they *gain* some economic security by migrating to the United States?”

During the following class period, students shared their responses to the instructional task. Although they had successfully identified some of the factors influencing the decision to migrate to the United States as well as the effects of this decision on Mexican people and communities, I realized that they had not clearly understood the link between trade policies and migration. Thus, we discussed the way that farm subsidies in the United States, the elimination of trade tariffs, and differences in hourly and daily wages and environmental laws affect the employment opportunities and living standards for workers in both the United States and Mexico.

Near the end of this class period, students were also invited to share the list of potential reasons that many people may oppose amnesty, which they had previously generated for homework after reading “The Advantages of Amnesty” text. The possible “against amnesty” reasons that students verbalized included that undocumented immigrants may have criminal

records and that amnesty may take jobs away from U.S. citizens. Other reasons that students voiced were that amnesty may encourage more immigrants to break the law once it became evident that doing so could mean eventually being allowed to stay in the United States and that giving undocumented immigrants amnesty may mean “too many people in U.S. who can’t speak English and need too much help.”

4.2.5 Cons for amnesty for illegal immigrants

In the following lesson in the Building Field stage, students’ predictions about the reasons that many people oppose amnesty were confirmed in the text, “Cons for Amnesty for Illegal Immigrants” (http://www.ehow.com/info_8490383_cons-amnesty-illegal-immigrants.html) (see Appendix M). This short text, written by a businesswoman and trained psychologist who regularly published online texts against amnesty, included the subheadings *Crime*, *Jobs*, *Social Programs*, and *American Identity*.

To prepare students for reading, I explained that in the introductory paragraph to this text, the author reported that there were 12 to 20 million illegal immigrants in the United States and that President Obama had introduced a plan, or proposal, to grant amnesty to any undocumented workers who were in good standing, or who had not been arrested or done anything wrong in the United States. I further explained that the author of this text defined the President’s plan as *paving the way*, which meant “leading to,” citizenship for illegal immigrants after they had paid a fine, learned English, and stayed crime-free for ten years.

In this lesson, I invited a student to read the brief introduction and then directed students to work with a partner to read the four subtitled paragraphs outlining the author’s arguments explaining why amnesty should not be granted to illegal immigrants. Before beginning the pair

work, I took advantage of the opportunity to build students' Knowledge About Language (KAL) by briefly discussing the idea of an author's lexical choices and use of evaluative language to convey a point of view. I asked students to complete a Think-Pair-Share about why one author would choose the term *undocumented immigrants* while another author chose the term *illegal immigrants* to refer to immigrants who had entered the United States without legal permission.

After the brief discussion in pairs, a student responded, "I think this is because like the author of this text, she doesn't like immigrants, she doesn't want to have more immigrants, so she say they are *illegal* so she make clear that they are breaking the law." I affirmed this response and elaborated that an author of a successful persuasive text is careful and purposeful about choosing words that evaluate or judge a given topic or an idea and that this thoughtful selection about which words to use is very important as it helps the author show or convey his or her point of view to the reader.

In addition to embedding KAL into instruction, this exchange afforded me the opportunity to lay a foundation for introducing a key linguistic resource in persuasive argument essays, that of *appraisal* (e.g., evaluation or judgment woven throughout a text by the author's language choices) (Martin & Rose, 2003; Schleppegrell, 2006; Rose & Martin, 2012). The use of evaluative language to convey interpersonal meanings would be an important focus in the subsequent lessons about reading and writing academically-valued persuasive argument essays.

The "Cons for Amnesty for Illegal Immigrants" text contained less unfamiliar vocabulary than the preceding texts that students had read thus far in the Building Field lessons. Students read the four short paragraphs presenting reasons against amnesty with their partners while I circulated and answered questions as students read and annotated the text.

Different pairs of students asked about the meanings of words and phrases such as, *prosecution*, *earnable amount of money*, *under the table*, *typical route*, and *melting pot*. I provided commonsense explanations for these words and phrases connected to the context in which they were used. A few pairs were confused by the phrase *drawing from* in the sentence, “Since these people are not employed in the United States and are not eligible for employment, they do not pay taxes into the social programs they are drawing from” (www.eHow.com).

Rose and Martin (2012) suggested that such figures of speech, or idioms, offer the teacher an opportunity to introduce the notion of lexical metaphor, or the idea that literal wording does not always make sense in the context of a sentence and that the inferred meaning can be distinct from the literal one. Thus, to explain that *drawing from* means “taking from or receiving benefits from” in the above sentence, I first asked students why they were confused by this phrase. One student replied, “Because drawing is what you do in art class.” I affirmed that meaning and elaborated that her definition represented the literal meaning of *drawing*—to use a pencil, pen, or marker to draw a picture but that in this sentence it had a different meaning that the reader needs to infer, or figure out.

I further elaborated that authors sometimes choose to use metaphors, or words that are used in a different way from the literal meaning that everyone knows. At this point, I reminded students that they were already familiar with the idea of inferring from a text as well as with the idea of metaphors that mean something different from the well-known meaning. For example, I asked them to recall what the author of “Ad Power” in our regular textbook had meant when she wrote that we are *swimming in advertising*, and a student responded that the author had meant that “ads are everywhere all around us.”

I invited students to try to infer what *drawing from* meant in the sentence under discussion. First, I asked students to consider what kind of social programs might people who do not have jobs use, and they responded, “Welfare, like food stamps and cash.” I then asked what point the author was trying to make about people who do not work and do not pay taxes but receive benefits like food stamps and cash assistance. A student responded, “Oh, it’s like they take these things, like the food stamps and money, but they don’t help to pay for them because they don’t pay taxes.”

I affirmed that this idea was what the author meant when she wrote that illegal immigrants are *drawing from* social programs but not helping to pay for them and reposed the question, “What does *drawing from* mean in this sentence then?” to which Pilar, a 12th grade female focal student from the Dominican Republic, responded, “It means taking out, like they are taking or receiving this food and money from Welfare.”

I affirmed this response and further elaborated by explaining that we can *draw on* our prior knowledge to understand what we’re reading, that we can *draw money from* bank accounts to make payments on loans, and that we can even *draw on the experience of others* to help us make decisions.

Interestingly, the discussion about this one sentence led to further discussion about always critically reading and evaluating the evidence an author presents to support a claim in a persuasive text. The discussion began when a student said, “But I know many immigrants, maybe some they are legal, I don’t know, but some they are not legal but they work and they pay taxes so why this author says that illegal immigrants don’t work and they don’t pay taxes?”

Discussions such as this one emerged regularly during the reading of the texts in the Building Field lessons, supporting Rose and Martin’s (2005, 2012) premise that the core notion

of guidance through interaction in the context of shared experience in genre pedagogy supports all students in a class to read and understand challenging texts.

After reading and discussing the “Cons for Amnesty for Illegal Immigrants” text, students worked with partners on a task (see Appendix N) to begin to restate each argument that the author had made against amnesty in their own words and to explain whether they disagreed with any of these arguments and why. A ninth grade male focal student from Nepal, Roshan, and his partner summarized the *Social Programs* paragraph as follows:

Illegal immigrants will receive social program like medical, housing, education and food. They will not pay taxes because they don't have job so they will take money from U.S. citizens.

As the discussion about *drawing from* and the reliability of the author's claim about undocumented immigrants' nonpayment of taxes took up a good portion of the class period, students completed these summaries of each “against amnesty” argument for homework.

4.2.6 Immigration amnesty pros and cons

Two final lessons in the Building Field stage were conducted to build students' background knowledge about the arguments for and against amnesty for undocumented immigrants. To connect briefly to the previous day's text, students spent a few moments working in pairs to share the summaries they had written for homework about the arguments against amnesty presented in that text.

Then, students read the final text from eHow entitled “Immigration Amnesty Pros & Cons” (http://www.ehow.com/facts_4810340_immigration-amnesty-pros-cons.html) (see Appendix O). To prepare students for reading, I explained that this author, who was a research analyst who had once taught economics and political science at a university, wrote a text that

provided an overview of the main arguments both for and against amnesty for undocumented immigrants. I outlined the organization of this text as presenting the significance of the amnesty issue followed by the reasons that amnesty should be granted and ending with the reasons that amnesty should not be considered.

I began the lesson by reading the introductory paragraph entitled *Significance*. This paragraph presented a good opportunity to employ the Focus, Identify, Affirm, Elaborate strategy:

Teacher	Focus	Which phrase in this paragraph is a synonym for <i>political hot potato</i> ?
Student	Identify	Hot-button issues.
Another Student	Identify	Also, contentious.
Teacher	Affirm	Great! That's right.
	Focus	What's a fourth synonym we've learned for <i>political hot potato</i> , <i>contentious</i> , and <i>hot-button</i> issues? It's another word that describes issues that are discussed and debated a lot in the media and by people.
Student (looking in notebook)	Identify	Controversial. (Has trouble pronouncing).
Teacher	Affirm	Exactly! Let's all say that word together. (Word is chorally repeated a few times).
	Elaborate	Good job. It's important when you write to use a wide variety of vocabulary. Synonyms help authors to write in an interesting way and also to refer to, or restate, the same ideas with different words.

The following two sentences also required some discussion and also afforded an opportunity to introduce KAL and build a shared metalanguage (Rose & Martin, 2012) into the

lesson: “Ideas for addressing the issue include a ‘path to citizenship’ with a guest worker program. Critics charge that it amounts to granting amnesty to illegal immigrants—something that was done in a 1986 immigration bill” (www.ehow.com).

First, I clarified what was meant by *guest worker program*. Then, I focused students’ attention on the word *critics* and asked whether *critics* were for or against the guest worker program. Some students responded, “Against” while others responded, “For” at the same time. I elaborated that the noun *critics* is connected to the verb *criticize*, which means “to say or write something negative about someone or something.” Thus, *critics* are “people who criticize.” I asked again whether critics would be people who were in favor of or against the guest worker program, and students replied, “Against.”

Continuing with this discussion, I asked students to explain what the word *charge* meant in the second sentence, or what critics do when they *charge*. One student answered, “I think it means like *say*, the critics *say*.” I affirmed that response and asked students to think about other verbs we had encountered in these texts about amnesty that can be used to write about what someone says and to suggest synonyms for *charge*. Pilar said, “You could say *state* or *claim*.”

I affirmed Pilar’s response and elaborated by explaining that students would learn in this unit about the way that authors can use verbs, or mental and verbal processes of thinking and saying, to introduce other’s voices in a persuasive argument essay. I elaborated further that mental processes include verbs like *believe* and *think* and that verbal processes include verbs like *argue* and *proclaim*. I stated that the name for this language tool is *projection* and that projection helps authors to project or include what other people think or say about a controversial issue into their writing (Christie, 2012; Schleppegrell, 2006; Rose & Martin, 2012).

After this discussion, students worked with a partner to read the six brief paragraphs in which the author outlined the main three *pro* arguments (e.g., entitled *War on Terror Resources*, *Economics*, and *Family Unity*) and three *con* arguments (e.g., entitled *Unfair*, *Costs*, and *Wages*) about amnesty. Students again marked any confusing words, phrases, or sentences. The unfamiliar vocabulary terms identified were *resources*, *U.S. ports*, *service sector jobs*, *by virtue of their birth*, *keep families intact*, and *through proper channels*.

Students were able to ascertain the meanings of some of these phrases through questions and elaborations as well as through the contributions of those students who knew what these phrases meant. For example, students were able to infer that *resources* referred to money and personnel in the sentence, “Resources that are now focused on capturing illegal immigrants could be redirected toward other homeland security needs” when I asked, “What does it take, what *kind* of resources are used now to catch illegal immigrants that *could* be used instead to make sure the country is secure and protected?”

Other students were able to explain that *ports* are “where the ships come in,” and that *service sector jobs* refers to “jobs in restaurants and cleaning hotels.” However, it was necessary to directly explain that *by virtue of their birth* referred to the fact that children of undocumented immigrants who were born in the United States were automatically citizens simply because they were born here.

In addition, I explained that *keep families intact* meant “keeping families together, or not separating families,” and that the author was referring to, but had not stated, that currently many families are torn apart, or separated, when an undocumented parent is deported and the child of that undocumented parent is a United States citizen due to being born here. Finally, I explained

that *through proper channels* referred to “following the rules, or following the right legal process to complete all paperwork to enter the United States legally.”

Although I had prepared questions for students to discuss and write about in connection to this text, I set them aside as students initiated a discussion during the last ten minutes to express their thoughts about the injustice of separating parents from children and their opinion that coming to the United States through proper channels, even when one enters the country legally, is no easy feat.

Before the bell, I reminded students that a substitute teacher would be with them the next day. I informed them that they would read a news article entitled, “Two Immigrants Killed in Ambush by Arizona Gunmen” that I had found online and then work with a partner to talk about and write answers to some questions about the article.

Finally, I explained that this news article would be the last text students would read about undocumented immigrants before beginning to focus on lessons in which they would learn to successfully read and write their own persuasive argument essays.

4.2.7 A news article text

In preparation for my absence, I left an annotated copy of the news article “Two Immigrants Killed in Ambush by Arizona Gunmen” (see Appendix P) (downloaded April 11, 2012 from <http://www.truthout>) with instructions to read the article to students while they read along silently and with annotations for vocabulary terms that would require explanation as well as questions to ask during reading.

I thought that students would enjoy reading a different kind of text about undocumented immigrants and that the substitute teacher could follow the lesson plan to guide this reading task.

However, upon my return the next day, the students informed me that they had not answered the questions because they had not understood the article.

To prepare students to reread this article, I explained that this news article reported the deaths of two undocumented immigrants whose bodies had been found near the Mexican border in Arizona. Local authorities suspected that paramilitaries, or citizens who were not police officers or Border Agents but who dressed in army gear and carried weapons, may have been responsible for these deaths. However, the article stated that the local sheriff could not find any evidence for who had killed the immigrants.

I further explained that the article then reported that a new bill, or proposal for a law, was being considered in Arizona that would allow citizens of Arizona to volunteer to be part of a militia, or a group of people who would be permitted by the government to dress like soldiers, carry weapons, and search for, stop, and arrest undocumented immigrants trying to cross the border from Mexico into Arizona. At that point, a long term ELL from Vietnam interjected, “That’s messed up.”

I explained that a state representative from Arizona named Raul Grijalva was a critic of this proposed bill and that the article included a powerful quote by Rep. Grijalva against the bill. I concluded this summary by stating that the article ended with a statistic from a group called No More Deaths that had documented the deaths of 71 undocumented immigrants since October 2011.

I told the students that I wanted them to understand the article even though I had not planned to spend the entire class period rereading and responding to this text on that particular day. Therefore, I would read the article to them paragraph by paragraph while they read silently

and would answer any questions that they had as well as ask them to answer questions during reading.

Thus, I conducted the reading in that manner. Students asked me to explain the meaning of *ambushed*, *orchestrated*, *paramilitary-style gear*, and *paper-thin weapons training*. In addition, students responded to questions such as, “How would the militia be different from the Border Patrol agents?” and “Explain Rep. Grijalva’s position about this bill to your partner in your own words.” At the end of the reading and discussion, students wrote a brief independent response in their notebooks to the question, “Do you agree that a state-sponsored, volunteer militia is a good idea or not? Explain your thinking.”

This lesson concluded the Building Field stage of the *Reading to Learn* cycle. I present a brief reiteration of the way in which these lessons were informed by the *Reading to Learn* approach below.

4.3 SUMMARY OF BUILDING FIELD LESSONS

The overarching goal of the lessons in the Building Field stage of the *Reading to Learn* cycle was to build students’ background knowledge about the issue of amnesty for undocumented immigrants by in order to prepare students to read and write academically-valued persuasive essays on this topic in the subsequent lessons of this instructional intervention.

In keeping with the genre-based *Reading to Learn* approach, I selected texts for reading that were appropriate and challenging for high school adolescent ELLs and situated these reading lessons within the broader curriculum unit in order to prepare students to read and write

academic texts in the target genre of this instructional intervention—the persuasive argument essay genre.

The reading strategies of Prepare, Focus, Identify, Affirm, and Elaborate were employed throughout the lessons in the Building Field stage in order to support all students in successfully reading the texts that would allow them to build a knowledge base about the issue of amnesty and eventually employ this knowledge to construct an authoritative, academic persuasive argument essay either for or against amnesty for undocumented immigrants.

The design of instructional tasks in the lessons in the Building Field stage was based on a fundamental principle of the *Reading to Learn* approach, that “successful language learning depends on guidance through interaction in the context of shared experience (Rose & Martin, 2012, p. 58). In the learning tasks created to build knowledge of the field in these lessons, I facilitated the reading and discussion of the selected texts and provided ample opportunities for teacher-to-student and student-to-student interaction around core vocabulary and concepts.

Finally, within the learning tasks, I embedded opportunities to build students’ KAL by focusing students’ attention on linguistic resources such as lexical choice (e.g., metaphors and synonyms) and evaluative language. Through attention to these linguistic resources within the context of reading various texts, I provided students with a glimpse into the way that authors employ these language tools in the writing of persuasive texts.

In summary, the background-building lessons of the Building Field stage prepared students for the next set of lessons in the curriculum unit—those that comprised the Preparing to Read and Detailed Reading Stages of the *Reading to Learn* cycle.

The lessons in these stages, built around the deconstruction of model persuasive argument essays both for and against amnesty for undocumented immigrants with focused

attention on the linguistic resources that function to construe academically successful texts in this genre, are described in Chapters 5 and 6.

5.0 THE PREPARING TO READ STAGE

5.1 THE PURPOSE OF THE PREPARING TO READ STAGE

The primary purpose of the Preparing to Read stage of the *Reading to Learn* cycle is to support students in deconstructing model texts in a school genre (e.g., persuasive argument essays) in order to prepare students for writing successfully in that genre. The language focus at this level is on the structure of whole texts (Martin & Rose, 2005; Rose & Martin, 2012). The broader goal of preparing students to read remains to enable all students to access challenging texts (Rose & Martin, 2012).

In the Preparing to Read stage, the teacher introduces students to the target genre (e.g., in the case of this instructional intervention, the persuasive argument essay) and discusses the social purpose of this genre (Martin & Rose, 2005). The students are also acquainted with the key elements (e.g., the schematic structure and content) of the target text before reading.

The target text selected is usually one that is related to a topic in a larger curriculum unit (Rose & Martin, 2012). The first target text to be deconstructed in the Preparing to Read and Detailed Reading stages in this instructional intervention was a pro-amnesty model persuasive essay (see Appendix A) for which background knowledge had been built in the lessons in the Building Field stage.

Thus, the initial step in the Preparing to Read stage is to preview the sequence of the way that the field (e.g., content knowledge) is unfolded through the phases (e.g., main structural components) in the target genre. A wide body of research based on functional linguistic text analyses has established that, in the exposition genre, the phases in the generic structure of argument essays are (a) an introduction with thesis and presentation of arguments, (b) body paragraphs in which arguments are developed one by one, and (c) a conclusion in which arguments are reiterated and a link back to the thesis is made (Coffin, 2006; Christie, 2012; Martin, 2002b; Schleppegrell, 2006; Rose & Martin, 2012).

As in the Building Field stage, initial steps in the Preparing to Read stage also include previewing the text's field, or content, in order to summarize the key information in each paragraph in commonsense terms that all students can understand (Rose & Martin, 2012). This preview "gives students a map of how the text will unfold, including a series of signposts so that they will recognize key elements as they occur. No student will struggle to comprehend what is happening at each step, so all will be able to follow the words closely as they are read" (Rose & Martin, 2012, p. 152).

A final step in the Preparing to Read stage is for the teacher to read the whole text aloud to students while they read along silently. This reading task can include employing the Focus, Identify, Affirm, Elaborate strategies with students marking the text; or, depending on the teaching and learning context, building in depth comprehension of the target text can occur during the Detailed Reading stage.

Given that substantial preparation for reading about amnesty for undocumented immigrants had occurred during the lessons in the Building Field stage as well as the fact that there was a tight timeframe for implementing the remaining lessons in the instructional

intervention, I decided to focus on the social purpose of the persuasive argument essay and its generic structure in the lessons in the Preparing to Read stage. These lessons are described in the next section.

The focus of the lessons in the Detailed Reading stage was to both comprehend the model persuasive essays both for and against amnesty as well as to explicitly highlight and practice the key linguistic resources that are functional for realizing an academic, authoritative persuasive argument essay. The lessons comprising the Detailed Reading stage are described in Chapter 6.

5.2 THE LESSONS IN THE PREPARING TO READ STAGE

5.2.1 The first lesson in the preparing to read stage

In the first lesson in the Preparing to Read stage, I informed students that the focus of the next set of lessons in the curriculum unit centered on the question, “Should amnesty be granted to undocumented immigrants?” would now shift to the careful study of the way that an author can use language as a tool to create an academically-valued persuasive argument essay either for or against amnesty.

I explained that to create an academically-valued persuasive argument essay, an author had to create three kinds of meanings at the same time. I presented students with a visual organizer entitled “Writing Academically-Valued Persuasive Essays” (see Appendix Q) that I designed in order to introduce students to these three types of meanings (e.g., ideational, interpersonal, and textual). These meanings were recontextualized as Presentation of Content

and Knowledge, Projection of an Authoritative Stance, and Construction of a Well-Organized text (Schleppegrell, 2006).

Another purpose of this organizer was to briefly lay out the “route” that would be followed to help students learn to successfully write persuasive argument essays on their own and to assure students that they could do so. The third purpose of this organizer was to provide a framework for students to engage in a discussion about the social purpose of the persuasive argument essay.

The social purpose of a genre is grounded in the notion that genres are socially recognized ways of using language (Hyland, 2002; Martin, 2009; Christie, 2012). That is, a successful text in any given genre will “display the writer’s awareness of its context and the readers which form part of that context” (Hyland, 2002, p. 114).

As an introduction to this first lesson in the Preparing to Read stage, I explained that in order to prepare for college all high school students needed to know why the persuasive argument essay is an important school genre (Christie, 2012; Schleppegrell, 2004) and how to write successfully in this genre using an academic writing style. I elaborated that writing in an academic style meant using language in a different way from the way that language is used in speaking. I reiterated that to write an academically-valued persuasive argument essay an author needed to be able to create, or build, the three different kinds of meanings for the reader at the same time.

As I distributed the “Writing Academically-Valued Persuasive Essays” visual organizer, I named these meanings as showing knowledge about the topic, using an academic tone and style (e.g., familiar terms to these students) to convince or persuade readers to accept the author’s point of view, and writing an organized text. I pointedly stated that what would be different

about the upcoming writing lessons from the ones students were accustomed to was that instead of just expecting students to make these three meanings, these lessons would focus on learning, practicing, and using the exact language tools that successful authors use to write academic-style persuasive argument essays.

At the top of the “Writing Academically-Valued Persuasive Essays” organizer, I focused students’ attention on the chart delineating the types of meanings on the left side and how authors develop these types of meaning on the right side. I verbally walked students through this chart.

For instance, I explained that students could think about the first type of meaning an author builds in a persuasive argument essay as the Presentation of Knowledge and Content about the topic and that presenting knowledge and content could be thought about as *Realizing Purpose*. In other words, in order to persuade or convince a reader about something, the author has to show that he or she knows what he or she is talking about.

I reiterated that the persuasive argument essays that students would eventually write would be either for or against amnesty for undocumented immigrants and that they would use the knowledge that they had gained from reading in the building background lessons to write these essays. This notion of supporting students to use what they learn through reading in writing is a central tenet of the *Reading to Learn* framework (Rose & Martin, 2012).

I referred students to the right side of the chart to read the bulleted list of what writers do to realize purpose, or to present knowledge about their topic. This list included:

- State thesis strongly and clearly.
- Present arguments to be developed.
- Introduce and refute counter-argument.
- Define key terms. (Adapted from Schleppegrell, 2006).

In commonsense terms, I explained that a thesis statement was similar to a topic sentence that presents a main idea in a paragraph and that the arguments to be developed were the reasons that the writer was for or against amnesty. I further explained that the *counter-argument* was “what people on the other side from the author had to say about amnesty” and that refuting the counter-argument meant stating why that argument was wrong. Finally, I noted that defining key terms simply meant making sure that the reader understood what words such as *amnesty* and *undocumented immigrants* meant.

Next, I focused students’ attention on the way that the writer of an academically-valued persuasive argument essay can accomplish the second type of meaning, Projection of an Authoritative Stance, or *Meeting Audience Expectations*. I asked students what the word *authoritative* meant, and one student answered, “Like you are the ruler, like you are in charge.” I affirmed that response indicating that an *authority* or a person *in authority* is in charge and can be a ruler and that the adjective *authoritative* was connected to that meaning but in this context meant “writing in an academic way that demonstrates authority.”

I emphasized that writing in an authoritative way allowed the author to be convincing and persuasive in this genre in a way that is valued academically in high school and college (Schellepgrell, 2006). I further elaborated that writing in an authoritative way required paying very close attention to the way that expressing ourselves when we talk was quite different than expressing ourselves when we write in an academic way. I added, “We already know that you are all very good at writing the way that you talk,” and the students laughed as they recognized the truth in this statement.

I referred students to the bulleted list on the right side of the chart that outlined the way that an author projects an authoritative stance in a persuasive argument essay:

- Present stance with authority but impersonally.
 - Convey evaluation and judgment of the topic.
 - Include others' voices that support or challenge the main argument.
- (Adapted from Schleppegrell, 2006).

To emphasize the distinction between everyday speech and academic writing, I focused students' attention on the word *impersonally* and asked them what it meant. One student responded, "Not personal." I affirmed this response and elaborated that although persuasive argument essays *can* be written in a personal style, in this unit about amnesty students would learn to write a persuasive argument essay either for or against amnesty in an academic, impersonal, authoritative style.

I emphasized this point further by stating that in the United States school system, students generally learn how to write persuasive texts in a personal tone using words such as, *I think*, *I believe*, and *Next, I will explain . . .* as well as pronouns such as, *I*, *you*, *me*, and *my* in the fifth grade. However, by high school, students heading for college needed to have the ability to write an argument about a topic in an academic, authoritative, impersonal way (Macken-Horarik, et al., 2011; Christie, 2012). I reiterated that over the next few weeks, students would learn to write in that manner.

To continue the introduction to "Projection of Authoritative Stance: Meeting Audience Expectations," I asked students to attend to the words *evaluation* and *judgment* in the second bulleted item. I posed the question, "What does it mean when you evaluate or judge a topic?" and a student answered, "It means like you say what you think about it, you give your opinion about it," and another student added, "You say if something is good or bad."

I affirmed these responses and elaborated that students would learn exactly how to use language as the authors of persuasive argument essays about amnesty to make their evaluation or judgment about whether amnesty is "good or bad" and whether amnesty should be granted to

undocumented immigrants very clear to the reader. I reiterated that students would also learn specifically which language tools work, or function, to show evaluation or judgment about amnesty in an authoritative, academic way. “In other words,” I added, “You’re not going to write, ‘So, let me tell you why amnesty is really, really bad!’” and students laughed again.

To conclude the introduction on “Projection of an Authoritative Stance,” I referred students to the third bulleted item and stated that it was important to provide support, or evidence, for an argument by including what other proponents of amnesty thought and said about the author’s argument. I reminded students that they had begun to learn about the importance of using evidence to support an author’s claims when they read “Ad Power” in the regular textbook.

I added that it was equally important to express a counter argument that challenged the author’s argument in order to be able to counter or refute that argument (Schleppegrell, 2006). I explained that refuting the counter argument would serve to strengthen the author’s stance, or position, by providing evidence that the author’s position was correct and that the reader should accept it. I reiterated that an author can use language as a tool to project or invite in other’s voices to either support why his or her own argument is right or demonstrate why the opposite argument is wrong.

Finally, I reminded students that I had briefly introduced the concept of *projection* in the building field lessons through explaining that an author can use mental or verbal processes, or verbs of thinking and saying, such as *believe*, *consider*, *argue*, or *claim*, to include other’s voices in a persuasive argument essay. I noted that using projection as a language tool to include other’s voices enables an author to communicate with the reader in the role of knowledge giver (Rose & Martin, 2012).

To introduce the third type of meaning, Construction of a Well-Organized Text, or *Building Coherence*, I focused students' attention on the chart again. I asked if anyone knew what the word *coherence* meant, but no one knew this word. I explained that *coherence* meant "very clear writing," that is that *coherent* writing is clear to the reader because it connects ideas smoothly in a sensible, logical way.

I elaborated that when an author writes coherently, he or she states ideas clearly and logically and that there are specific ways that authors can use language as a tool to be *coherent*, to write *coherently*, and to build *coherence*. To build students' Knowledge About Language (KAL), I wrote these words for students to read as I emphasized them orally and then identified them as an adjective, an adverb, and a noun whose meanings were related as they were all different forms of the same word.

To explain the way that authors build coherence in a persuasive argument essay, I directed students' attention to the bulleted list on the right side of the chart:

- Arguments clearly state in introduction.
- Arguments developed in separate paragraphs.
- Logical "chain of reasoning" links arguments together.
- Conclusion restates arguments (Adapted from Schleppegrell, 2006).

Using commonsense terms, I stated that students could think about this third type of meaning as taking all the arguments and evidence that they wanted to include in their essay, thinking about how to state the arguments authoritatively and impersonally, and then organizing, or building, the essay step by step in a logical way. In turn, this authoritative, logical, and organize style of writing may lead the reader to conclude, "Wow! This author has persuaded me! I'm convinced!"

I stated that it was my prediction that creating this third type of meaning, or creating a coherent, well-organized text, would be the easiest one for students to learn due to the fact that

they were familiar with how to organize their writing in a different genre, Response to Literature. I elaborated that when they wrote a Response to Literature after reading novels or stories, they began with an introduction that stated an important theme in the novel or story. Next, they selected evidence from the text that supported this interpretation of the theme and developed these ideas in paragraphs, ending by writing a conclusion that restated the theme.

At that point, one student, a senior, joked, “Yeah, but, sometimes our Responses to Literature are not so good, you say for us to do this, but we don’t do.” This time, I smiled and replied, “That’s true, but that’s the point I tried to make earlier. In these lessons, I want to teach you how to write in a different way. I am not just going to tell you what the author of a persuasive argument essay does to write a good essay. Instead, I’m going to teach you exactly how the author uses specific language tools to be a successful writer in this genre.”

I explained that to create this third kind of meaning, or a well-organized text, the author of an academic-style persuasive argument essay stated the arguments to be developed in the essay, or the reasons of his or her position, in the first paragraph, or introduction, after the thesis statement. Next, the author developed each of these arguments, or reasons, in a separate paragraph and linked the ideas within each paragraph and from paragraph to paragraph.

I noted that in connecting ideas within paragraphs and between paragraphs, the author’s goal was to create a *chain of reasoning* (Schleppegrell, 2006) which logically linked together all of his or her arguments so that the reader was not confused. I used the representation of the links in a necklace to illustrate this idea by drawing a “chain” of circles connected together while explaining that all of the links in the chain worked together to form the necklace and make it strong, just as linking all of the arguments together in a persuasive argument essay help the author create a strong, coherent essay.

Lastly, I stated that a final step the author of a persuasive argument essay took to build coherence or create a well-organized essay was to write a concluding paragraph that restate the arguments again and connected back to the thesis statement. I elaborated that students were familiar with this idea from writing Responses to Literature about books and stories in which they ended their writing with a conclusion that restated or reemphasized the theme that they had stated in the introduction.

This initial introduction to the three types of meaning in a persuasive argument essay and the way that authors use language to develop each of these meanings took longer than anticipated. Sensing that students might be tired of being mainly passive listeners, I concluded this first lesson in the Preparing to Read stage. I thanked the students for patiently allowing me to walk them through this introduction to the three types of meaning in a persuasive argument essay and the steps that successful authors employed to create these meanings in an academic way.

I previewed the focus of the next lesson as “revealing the mystery” of the specific language tools that authors use to create these meanings as well as to discuss the social purpose of this genre. In other words, we would discuss who writes persuasive argument essays and why they do so.

5.2.2 The second lesson in the preparing to read stage

To begin the next lesson in the Preparing to Read stage, I directed students to refer to the “Writing Academically-Valued Persuasive Essays” (see Appendix Q) visual organizer and to use the chart at the top of that organizer to tell a partner what they had learned yesterday about the three types of meanings in an academic, authoritative persuasive argument essay and how an

author creates those three types of meanings. Students talked with their partners for two or three minutes.

To begin to unpack the notion that specific language tools function to realize these three types of meanings simultaneously in the persuasive argument essay genre, I directed students' attention to the bottom half of the visual organizer which is provided in Figure 9 below:



"Ugh!" "Just the thought of writing a persuasive argument essay makes me want to pull my hair out!"

"As a writer, HOW IN THE WORLD do I develop these three kinds of meanings in my essay?"

Don't worry! The purpose of this instructional unit is for you to **learn and practice** the *language tools* that successful writers of persuasive argument essays use to write in an academically-valued way. You will learn *exactly how* to write this type of essay well!

In this instructional unit, you will:

- ✓ Work with me to take apart/deconstruct model persuasive essays both for and against amnesty for undocumented immigrants.
- ✓ Identify, discuss, and practice using the *language tools* that are evident in the model persuasive essays.
- ✓ Write with me to use those *language tools* to write a similar persuasive essay.
- ✓ Write with a partner to use those *language tools* to write another similar persuasive essay.
- ✓ Use the **language tools** that you have learned to independently write your own persuasive essay either for or against amnesty.

Figure 9. Introducing the Language Tools that Realize Meanings in a Persuasive Argument Essay

I said, “Let’s take a look at the rubric that identifies what those language tools are! You will learn about each language tool listed in the rubric. You can use the rubric to guide your own writing, and it will be used to evaluate your writing as well.”

I invited students to volunteer to read this section of the visual organizer aloud. After reading, I explained that, before looking at the rubric (e.g., the Performance Criteria and Assessment Tool), I wanted students to think about an analogy to help them understand what is meant by *using language as a tool*.

I posed the question, “Would you use a hammer, a saw, and a screwdriver to make a batch of chocolate chip cookies?” The students chorally replied, “No.” I asked why not, and several students spoke at once to reply that these tools would not be the right ones for making cookies. I asked, “Which tools would you use to make chocolate chip cookies?” and a student replied, “You can use the big bowl and those things, I don’t know how you say to know how much to put, like flour, sugar.” I supplied the words *measuring cups* and *spoons*, and the student continued, “Yes, you use measuring cups and spoons, and a big spoon to mix.”

I affirmed this response by reiterating that a large mixing bowl, measuring cups and spoons, and a large spoon for mixing all of the ingredients together would be the proper tools one would use to make a batch of chocolate chip cookies. I expressed that I wanted students to think about language tools in this way and to consider that writing in different genres requires the use of different language tools.

To give an example, I stated that a successful author would choose different language tools if he or she were writing a summary of an informational text, or a personal narrative about an experience, or a response to literature, or a persuasive argument essay. I explained that, although an author may choose some of the same language tools to write in any of these genres,

he or she would use the tools in distinct ways to make the three types of meanings that are present in a text in any genre. In other words, an author would use language tools in one way to write a response to literature and in another way to write a persuasive argument essay.

Furthermore, to introduce the important notion of authorial choice within a genre (Hyland, 2002; Martin, 2000b; Rose & Martin, 2012), I elaborated that once an author has a firm grasp of the language tools that are useful for creating the patterns of meanings in a particular genre, he or she can vary the way the language tools are used. In other words, no two persuasive argument essays would turn out to be exactly alike, since they were written by two different authors, just like chocolate chip cookies made by different bakers would taste differently. Nonetheless, the persuasive argument essays would be recognized as belonging to the same genre and wouldn't be mistaken for a poem, for example, just as the chocolate chip cookies baked by different bakers would not be mistake for a chocolate cake.

I reassured students that the way an author chooses and uses the language tools that are useful for writing a well-written persuasive argument essay would become clear through all of the lessons in the next month. I directed students' attention to the rubric (e.g., the Performance Criteria and Assessment tool) that named the language tools that function for creating meanings in persuasive argument essays. I chose to use the word *rubric* for the Performance Criteria and Assessment Tool as students were familiar with this term.

As I distributed the Performance Criteria and Assessment Tool, I cautioned students that the names for the language tools on this rubric would be unfamiliar to them and that the purpose of the day's lesson was simply to "reveal the mystery" about what these language tools were and what they were called. I assured students that they would become very familiar with these language tools by reading two model persuasive argument essays about amnesty together, by

using these tools in practice activities, and by eventually using these language tools to write their own persuasive argument essays.

Projecting the Performance Criteria and Assessment Tool on the Elmo, I pointed to the titles for the three types of meaning in the first column. I stated that in the second column, the specific language tools, or language resources, for creating, or realizing each type of meaning were listed. I pointed to the words *modality*, *consequential markers*, *nominal structures*, *concession* and *refutation*, and *relational processes* as I explained that these words named the language tools that an author would use to create the first type of meaning, Presentation of Content and Knowledge, in a persuasive argument essay.

Next to the second type of meaning, Projection of an Authoritative Stance, I identified the words *evaluation* and *judgment*, *modality*, *markers of consequential meanings*, and *projection* as naming the language tools that would enable an author to create this second type of meaning.

Finally, I pointed to and read the words *chain of reasoning*, *nominal structures*, *internal connectors*, *conjunctive links*, *theme/rheme progression*, and *referents* while explaining that these were the language tools that an author of a persuasive argument essay would use to create the third type of meaning, Construction of a Well-Organized Text.

I reiterated that I was not going to explain all of these language tools during this lesson as students would learn about these tools in context through identifying them and noticing how they function, or work, in two model persuasive argument essays. I added that students would also practice using these language tools both in and outside of class before being asked to use them to write their own academic-style persuasive argument essays.

To transition to the next part of this lesson to explore the social purpose of writing in the persuasive argument essay genre, an important goal of the Preparing to Read stage, I focused

students' attention on the back side of the "Writing Academically-Valued Persuasive Argument Essays" visual organizer.

The introduction stated the expectation for knowing how to write a persuasive argument in college and reiterated the schematic structure of texts in this genre (e.g., introduction with thesis statement, paragraph-by-paragraph argument development, and conclusion that reiterated the arguments). After reading the introduction, students participated in three separate Think-Pair-Shares (T-P-S) designed to support them in discussing the social purpose of writing in this genre. Students read each discussion prompt on the visual organizer and held a discussion with a partner before moving on to the next T-P-S.

The discussion prompts and students' verbal responses are included in Table 11 below. During the share-outs after each T-P-S, I verbally recontextualized students' responses in more academic language and recorded these responses on the visual organizer. These recontextualized academic responses are the ones that are included in Table 10.

Table 10. Think-Pair-Shares about the Social Purpose of Persuasive Argument Essays

Think-Pair-Share Prompt	Students' Recontextualized Responses
T-P-S #1: Why do high schools and colleges <i>value</i> students' competency (ability) to write persuasive essays in which students respond to texts they've read by stating and developing arguments about the main topic of the texts? In other words, what <i>skills</i> or <i>abilities</i> do students who can write this type of essay successfully possess? Record your responses below.	<p>*persuasive communicator ➡ motivate others</p> <p>*reading comprehension ➡ synthesize texts ➡ write fluently</p> <p>*propose solutions to societal problems ➡ challenge current structures</p> <p>*self-confidence as a writer ➡ express ideas</p> <p>*empowerment ➡ share ideas with others</p>
T-P-S #2: Many people are adept (skilled) at writing persuasive arguments. Parents can write them to school boards, business people write them, scientists, politicians, educational experts, and <i>ordinary citizens</i> write persuasive essays all the time! WHY is the <i>persuasive argument essay</i> an important genre? In other words, what <i>social purpose</i> do these essays serve? Record your responses below.	<p>*formally state a position on a controversial issue</p> <p>*persuade people to change their minds about important issues</p> <p>*change the world through thinking</p>
T-P-S #3: What kinds of topics do you think people write persuasive argument essays about? Brainstorm a list below.	<p>*global warming *voting</p> <p>*school uniforms *abortion</p> <p>*advertising *gay rights</p> <p>*amnesty *laws & policies</p>

To conclude this lesson in the Preparing to Read stage, I provided students with a copy of the first model persuasive essay, a pro-amnesty essay (see Appendix A). Displaying this model text on the Elmo, I highlighted and verbally reiterated the generic structure of this essay by pointing to the introductory paragraph, each argument paragraph, and the concluding paragraph.

As I pointed and talked, I wrote *introduction with thesis, presentation and development of argument one, presentation and development of argument two, presentation and development of*

argument three, and *conclusion that restates arguments* in the margins next to the corresponding paragraphs.

I stated that the author's social purpose in this particular essay was to persuade readers that amnesty should be granted to undocumented immigrants and that the author used the language tools that students had been introduced to in the day's lesson to successfully create the three types of meanings which had been introduced: (a) Presentation of Content and Knowledge, (b) Projection of an Authoritative Stance, and (c) Construction of a Well-Organized Text.

Although the final step in the Preparing to Read stage is to read the model text aloud to students as they read silently, there was insufficient time to do so in this class period. Thus, I ended this lesson by telling students that I would read the essay to them on Monday so that they could listen to and read the entire text once without interruption and that we would then begin the next set of lessons, the Detailed Reading lessons.

I elaborated that over several class periods of Detailed Reading lessons, students would work with me to read this first model essay sentence by sentence to ensure that all students understood the essay as well as to specifically identify and discuss the way that the author used the language tools, such as *nominal structures*, *causal links*, *modals*, *connectors*, *referents*, and *evaluative language* to write an academically-valued persuasive argument essay.

One student raised his hand and asked, "Are you the author of the model essay?" I replied that I had written the model essays both for and against amnesty that we would study in the remaining lessons. Another student asked, "How can you write for and against?" and I answered that the beauty of knowing how to use language as a tool to write a persuasive argument essay meant that an author can take *any* position or stance and turn it into a well-developed argument. This prompted a question from another student, "But are you for or against

amnesty?” to which another student replied, “We already know that. Mrs. Ramos like immigrants so she is for amnesty.” I smiled at that response; and, at that moment, the bell rang.

5.3 SUMMARY OF PREPARING TO READ LESSONS

Through the two lessons in the Preparing to Read stage of the *Reading to Learn* cycle described above, students were acquainted with the three types of meanings that construe persuasive argument essays. These lessons also provided students with an introduction to the social purpose of writing in this genre as well as to the genre’s schematic structure of discourse organization (Coffin, 2006; Rose & Martin, 2012).

Furthermore, these lessons provided a preview of the kinds of Knowledge About Language (KAL) and metalanguage (Macken-Horarik, et al., 2011) that would be used to deconstruct the model persuasive essays in the subsequent lessons in the Detailed Reading stage. For instance, students were acquainted with the metalanguage for the language resources (e.g., nominal structures, modality, and consequential markers). In addition, through an introductory explanation supported by a visual organizer and the Performance Criteria and Assessment Tool, awareness was created about the connection between the use of these language resources and the realization of the three kinds of meanings in texts in the target genre.

Thus, the lessons in the Preparing to Read stage served as preparation for the lessons in the Detailed Reading stage in which careful deconstruction of model texts which involved explicit instruction around the language resources that function to construe the three meanings in persuasive argument essays. These lessons in the Detailed Reading stage are described in Chapter 6.

6.0 THE DETAILED READING STAGE

6.1 THE PURPOSE OF THE DETAILED READING STAGE

The purpose of the Detailed Reading stage is to provide students with a high level of support in the comprehension of a model text (e.g., a persuasive argument essay) and to prepare students to use what they learn about language during reading in their writing. The focus is on patterns of meaning within and between sentences. Metalanguage about language resources and their functions is built up and reinforced through the teacher's elaboration moves (Rose & Martin, 2012).

Thus, in the detailed reading stage, an important goal is to develop detailed Knowledge About Language (KAL) at the levels of grammar and discourse. For example, an important language resource for students to notice and practice in persuasive argument essays is the complex patterns of appraisal (e.g., evaluative language) that an author employs to persuade the reader. That is, appraisal is a key linguistic resource for persuasion.

In short, in the Detailed Reading stage, students are afforded access to the total complexity of language patterns in the genre of the model text through guided interaction in a series of manageable steps in order to prepare for writing a text in that same genre.

6.2 THE LESSONS OF THE DETAILED READING STAGE

In the lessons in the Detailed Reading stage, the students and I continued to work closely with the pro-amnesty model persuasive argument essay (see Appendix A). These lessons comprised the core of the instructional intervention.

The overarching goal of these lessons was to simultaneously support students' comprehension of the model text while introducing the linguistic resources that I had employed as the author of this model text to construe the three overarching types of meanings (e.g., Presentation of Content and Knowledge, Projection of an Authoritative Stance, and Construction of Well-Organized Text). Thus, I intertwined reading support with instruction that introduced Knowledge About Language (KAL) in the teaching and learning process (Martin & Rose, 2012).

It is important to note that given time constraints in this instructional intervention, the primary focus of these lessons was to support students in noticing, discussing, and practicing the linguistic resources (e.g., appraisal, conjunctive links, nominalization, modality) that function to construe an academically-valued persuasive argument essay. That is, although I supported students' in expanding lexical knowledge through elaborations in context, the main focus was on drawing students' attention to the specific linguistic tools employed in the model persuasive argument essays in order to facilitate students' competency in successfully writing in this genre.

To scaffold this genre-based, linguistically-oriented instruction, I provided each student with a pack of eight, thin-line colored markers and a color-coded list of the language resources that function to construe the three meanings in a persuasive argument essay. This instructional scaffold is provided in Figure 10 below:



MODALS will be coded in BLUE.

NOMINALIZATIONS will be coded in PURPLE.

POSTIVE EVALUATIVE LANGUAGE will be coded in YELLOW, and NEGATIVE EVALUATIVE LANGUAGE will be coded in ORANGE.

RELATIONAL PROCESSES will be coded in BROWN.

ADVERBS will be coded in RED.

CAUSAL LINKS will be coded with a BROWN CIRCLE.

SYNONYMS will be coded in GREEN.

MENTAL and VERBAL PROCESSES will be coded with a BLACK BOX.

These are the linguistic tools that you will use to construct well-written, academically-valued persuasive arguments. By knowing which language tools function for which purposes, you will become a master of the trade of writing!



Figure 10. Color-Coded Key of Linguistic (Language) Tools for Writing Academically-Valued Persuasive Essays

I used the metaphor and visual representation of a tool box to encourage students to think about *language resources* as “language tools” that an author can “pick up and use” to write successfully in the persuasive argument genre. Although not color-coded, other linguistic resources identified on the Performance Criteria and Assessment Tool (e.g., referents, thematic progression, and conjunctive links, or connectors) were also a focus during the lessons comprising the Detailed Reading stage.

Segments of these lessons were videotaped by an educational assistant in the ESL classroom. I used these videotaped segments to reflect on the implementation of the Detailed Reading strategies employed throughout these lessons. Excerpts from these videotapes are included to illustrate the way that the instruction attended to the linguistic resources that function to construe an academically successful persuasive argument essay this key part of the instructional intervention.

6.2.1 The first lesson in the detailed reading stage

Since there had been insufficient time to read the model pro-amnesty persuasive argument essay at the end of the final lesson in the Preparing to Read stage, I began the Detailed Reading lessons with that strategy. First, I reiterated the schematic structure of the essay (e.g., introduction with thesis and arguments presented, each argument developed in a separate paragraph, and conclusion that restates the arguments) as the model essay was projected at the Elmo. I then read the essay aloud as students followed on their own copies.

I stated, “OK, we know what the structure of this genre is. What we don’t know is exactly how the language tools that we introduced work to write in the genre. It’s going to take some time to learn how these language tools can be used by an author in this genre.”

I informed students that we would work through the essay paragraph by paragraph and sentence by sentence with two purposes in mind: (a) to understand the content, or what the essay was about, and (b) to identify, highlight, and discuss the language resources, or language tools, that the author used to build the three types of meanings. I explained that these lessons, followed by Joint Construction of a similar text, would serve as preparation for students to independently write in this same genre.

The first paragraph of the pro-amnesty model persuasive essay is included below:

The United States of America must live up to its claim to be a land of opportunity for all people who seek freedom and security by granting amnesty to undocumented immigrants who peacefully live and work here. Granting amnesty is the governmental act of officially allowing law-abiding immigrants who originally arrived in the U.S. without permission to stay here without penalty. Amnesty must be granted immediately for several reasons. Allowing undocumented immigrants to become legal and stay in the U.S. will strengthen the U.S. economy. In addition, permitting undocumented immigrants to remain in the U.S. legally will increase tax revenues that can improve public services for everyone. Most importantly, providing undocumented immigrants with the opportunity to live freely and securely will prove that the U.S. government's actions match its ideals.

I paraphrased the content of the first paragraph as follows:

In this paragraph, the author begins with a thesis statement that strongly states her position as *pro* or *for* amnesty. She then presents, but does not explain, her three main reasons, or arguments, for why amnesty must be granted. In this essay, the author decided to introduce her strongest argument last. So, in this paragraph the author has made her stance clear, and she has named the arguments that she will develop in the essay.

I focused students' attention on the thesis statement and reread this sentence. I explained that the author had clearly stated her opinion that if the United States truly is a land of opportunity for everyone who wants to live freely and securely, as the government and even most Americans say is true, then it has to live up to this promise, or claim, and grant amnesty to undocumented immigrants.

I asked students to notice that the author did not begin with *I think*, or *I believe*, or *In my opinion*. I stressed that although it was certainly possible to choose to write a persuasive argument essay from a personal perspective, these lessons would focus on how to write such an essay in an impersonal, authoritative, academic way.

I drew students' attention to the author's use of the language resources of modality and consequential markers. The following exchange exemplifies the instruction that took place around the key linguistic resources that function to realize meanings in this genre.

Teacher	Focus	Which words mean “has to prove?”
Students	Identify	<i>Must live up to.</i>
Teacher	Affirm	Yes, those are the words that mean “has to prove.”
Teacher	Direct	I want you to notice the word <i>must</i> . Let’s underline <i>must</i> in blue.
	Elaborate	<i>Must</i> is a language tool that we call a <i>modal</i> . What’s important for you to know is what a modal does. This kind of modal tells the author’s opinion about <i>how necessary</i> something is. The modals that help an author state his or her stance about <i>how necessary</i> something is are words like <i>should</i> , <i>need to</i> , <i>have to</i> , or <i>must</i> .

I then asked, “What’s the difference in the modals in these two sentences? You *should* join an after-school club. You *must* join an after-school club. Which modal is stronger?” The students answered, “Must,” and one student added, “*Should* is like choice. *Must* mean like you have to do.”

I affirmed that response a response and elaborated:

You have to think about that as a writer when you try to persuade someone to accept your position. If I change *must* to *should* in the thesis statement, it’s like I’m saying, ‘Well, the United states has to or doesn’t have to live up to its claim. It doesn’t really matter.’ I’m not taking a strong stance. OK, so in a thesis statement, it’s important to use a strong modal when you write a persuasive argument essay. It will make your position more convincing.

I then focused students’ attention on another linguistic tool used by the author in this first sentence, a consequential marker, which would be referred to and coded as a *causal link*. I stated that the author had used a *causal link* in the thesis statement to suggest *how* the United States could prove that it believes in freedom and security for everyone. In other words, I explained that the author was stating that, in order for the United States government to prove that it was

serious about being a land of opportunity for all people, one action had to occur. I asked students what that action was, and several students responded, “Granting amnesty.”

I affirmed that response and emphasized that by using the phrase *by granting amnesty to undocumented immigrants* the author was establishing a link between this act of granting amnesty and the result of proving, or living up, to its claim that it was a land of opportunity for everyone. I further elaborated, “In other words, it’s like the author is saying ‘Listen up, United States government, if you give amnesty, so *by granting amnesty* to undocumented immigrants, you can prove that you are what you say you are—a land of opportunity for all people.’”

To strengthen this elaboration, I stated that the author could have chosen to express this causal link more directly by writing the thesis statement as, “By granting amnesty to undocumented immigrants who peacefully live and work here, the United States of America will live up to its claim to be a land of opportunity for all people who seek freedom and security.”

I commented that each author can choose to use the language resources that work to create meanings in a particular genre in different ways. I invited students to circle *by granting amnesty* in brown to indicate it as a causal link while I did the same at the Elmo.

Following Rose and Martin’s (2012) suggestion that, “As we return to the text through a series of activities, not everything needs to be discussed at once” (Rose & Martin, 2012, p. 205), I deliberately chose not to identify *by granting amnesty to undocumented immigrants who peacefully live and work here* as a nominalization in this first sentence. Instead, I introduced students to the author’s use of the key linguistic resource of positive evaluative language (e.g., appraisal) in the thesis statement.

I stated that I wanted to focus on one more important language resource in the thesis statement that the author would use throughout the essay which was called *evaluative language*.

I reminded students that they had already told me that to *evaluate* or *judge* something meant “to decide whether something was good or bad, or positive or negative.” I asked students whether the author of this pro-amnesty essay was likely to mainly use positive or negative evaluative language to write about amnesty for undocumented immigrants, and students chorally responded, “Positive.”

I elaborated that the language resource of evaluative language was a powerful tool for an author of a persuasive argument essay to use to both convey his or her stance authoritatively and to persuade the reader to his or her position. I asked students to identify words or phrases in the thesis statement that had positive meanings. Students called out, “*Freedom, security, land of opportunity, and peacefully*.” I affirmed their identification of the positive evaluative language in this first sentence.

I further elaborated:

All of those words are positive words. As the author, I carefully chose words that show the reader that I have a very positive image about undocumented immigrants. You’ll see when we’re done reading this essay that we’ll have a whole lot of yellow highlights.

A student interjected, “That’s because you like amnesty,” and I continued:

Yes, in this essay, I’m taking a pro-amnesty stance. So every word that I can add that strengthens that viewpoint, we call that, the fancy word for it is *evaluative language*, but it just means the author is showing his or her own judgment or opinion. For example, I could leave out the word *peacefully*, and just write, *Undocumented immigrants who live and work here*, but I made my writing better by choosing to add a very positive word to show the way that I, as the author, believe undocumented immigrants are living their lives in the United States. We call this *positive evaluative language*.

One student added, “What about *undocumented immigrant*? “Is that positive language because before we say that *illegal alien* was negative and *undocumented immigrant* was positive, like nice way to call immigrants.” I thanked this student for that observation and invited students

to highlight all of these wordings, including *undocumented immigrants* with their yellow markers while I highlighted these words and phrases at the Elmo.

I now focused students' attention on the second sentence of the first paragraph, "Granting amnesty is the governmental act of officially allowing law-abiding immigrants who originally arrived in the U.S. without permission to stay here without penalty." I paraphrased that in this sentence the author defined *to grant amnesty* as "an official act of the government that gives permission to immigrants who came to the U.S. illegally but have not been in any trouble since they got here to stay without having to pay money or spend any time in jail."

I asked students to identify the verb that the author had used to link *granting amnesty* to its definition, and one student replied, "Is." I affirmed that response and elaborated that *is* was a *relational process*. I explained that a relational process connects, or relates, an idea to what it is. That is, a relational process can function to allow an author to define key terms.

I reminded students that it was the author's job in a persuasive argument essay to define any key terms that the reader may not know. I elaborated that authors generally use verbs of "being or having," such as *am*, *is*, *are*, *has*, and *have* as relational processes. I directed students to underline *is* in brown.

I refocused students' attention on lexical meanings and the use of positive evaluative language in the second sentence:

Teacher	Focus	Which word shows the author's positive evaluation of undocumented immigrants in the second sentence?
Student	Identify	<i>Law-abiding.</i>
Teacher	Affirm	Yes.
	Elaborate	I've already said that undocumented immigrants live here peacefully. Now I'm saying that they're <i>law-abiding</i> , that they follow the laws. I could

leave that out. I could write, . . . *allowing immigrants who originally arrived in the U.S.* . . . but as the author of a persuasive argument essay, at every opportunity, I'm going to add evaluative language that reinforces, or supports, my stance by showing my judgment.

Direct Let's underline *law-abiding* in yellow.

I used the same Focus-Identify-Affirm-Elaborate strategy for the phrases *without permission* and *without penalty* to define them as “illegally” and “without any kind of consequence or punishment” respectively. I then focused students' attention on the third sentence, “Amnesty must be granted immediately for several reasons,” and asked a student to reread that sentence aloud.

I stated that this sentence functioned to alert the reader that the author was going to name the arguments, or reasons, why amnesty must be granted in the next few sentences. I explained that by stating *for several reasons* the author was working to build a coherent, or organized, text by alerting the reader that the following sentences would name the arguments.

I emphasized that students should note that the author did not write, “Next, I'm going to tell you the reasons why I think amnesty must be granted,” or “I have many reasons why amnesty must be granted. They are . . .” which frequently happens when students write like they talk. I stressed that being able to write in an academic way, which was distinct from the way people talk, was a critical skill to develop before college.

I pointed to the third sentence again and asked students which words helped the author to convey her opinion about *how necessary* it is for amnesty to be granted. Several students replied, “Must,” and a few replied, “Immediately.” I affirmed these responses and asked what kind of word *must* was, and students answered, “Modal.” I directed students to underline *must* in blue.

I noted that *immediately* was an adverb, a part of speech with which students were familiar. I referred students to the color-coded list of language resources, and we underlined *immediately* in red to identify it as an adverb. I elaborated, “When I use *must* and *immediately*, I don’t need to write, *I think that*. With these word choices, I am already strongly stating what I think.” I reiterated that it was important to be authoritative in an impersonal way in an academic persuasive argument essay.

At this point, Asha, the ninth grade focal student from Somalia, interjected, “It’s like a lawyer in court having a trial who has to persuade. They don’t use *I* but they persuade the jury.” I thanked Asha for that analogy and added, “Yes, lawyers are masters of persuasion, but they have to deliver their arguments orally. They may say something like, “The law demands that you the jury must . . .”

I focused students’ attention on the fourth sentence in which the author introduced the first argument. I invited a student to read the sentence, “Allowing undocumented immigrants to become legal and stay in the U.S. will strengthen the U.S. economy.” I paraphrased that the author’s first argument was that if undocumented immigrants were allowed to stay in the United States legally, then the U.S. economy would get stronger.

I then provided students with an introduction to the language resource of *nominalization*. I stated that in this sentence, the author used a very important language resource called *nominalization*. I referred students to this word on the color-coded list, and pronounced it first by syllables and then as a whole word as students pronounced the word after me.

I explained that nominalization was a key language resource in academic writing in general and that it was a useful language tool for naming the arguments to be developed in a

persuasive argument essay (Schleppegrell, 2006). I defined a *nominalization* as “turning a verb, or an action, into a noun, or a thing.” I refocused students’ attention on the fourth sentence.

I explained that *Allowing undocumented immigrants to become legal and stay in the U.S.* was a giant noun, or nominalization. I expanded this explanation by stating that the author was using an academic way of expressing “the action of letting undocumented immigrants stay in the U.S.” as an act, or a thing, or as an event. That is, the nominalization functioned to express this action as a noun.

Next, I indicated that this nominalization was followed by its result in the following exchange:

Teacher	Focus	What is the author stating as the result of <i>allowing undocumented immigrants to become legal and stay in the U.S.</i> ?
Student	Propose	Strengthen U.S. economy.
Teacher	Affirm	Yes, that’s the result of the <i>act</i> in the nominalization.
	Elaborate	<p><i>Strengthen</i> is a <i>causal link</i>. A <i>causal link</i> is “a verb that indicates the result of a nominalization, or an act.” I’m linking <i>allowing undocumented immigrants to become legal and stay in the U.S.</i> to the result <i>strengthen the U.S. economy</i>. This <i>thing</i> (pointing to nominalization) gets this result (pointing to <i>strengthen the U.S. economy</i>).</p> <p>That’s the power and beauty of nominalization. When you take an action and turn it into a noun, you have now set yourself up as the writer to be able to give the result of that act and that’s a whole lot better than writing, “We should let undocumented immigrants stay in the U.S. because this will make the U.S. economy stronger.”</p>

I further elaborated that many verbs can function as causal links such as, *lead to*, *increase*, *cause*, and *result in*. I directed students to underline the nominalization in purple and to circle the causal link in brown. I then focused students' attention on the author's use of the modal *will* in this sentence.

I asked students to notice that I had stated that the government's act of allowing undocumented immigrants to stay in the United States *will* strengthen the U.S. economy and pointed to this modal in the sentence. I explained that there were two kinds of modals, those that showed the author's opinion about *how necessary* it was for something to happen, such as *should* or *must* and those that indicated *how possible* it was that something would happen, such as *will*.

I stated that in the fourth sentence, the author chose the modal *will* to convey an opinion about *how possible* it was that the act of allowing undocumented immigrants to stay in the United States would result in a stronger U.S. economy. I asked students to consider the difference between the meaning of *will* and the choice of *might* in this sentence:

Teacher	Focus	What happens here if I change <i>will</i> to <i>might</i> ?
Student	Propose	It can be or it cannot be.
Teacher	Affirm	Yes, that's exactly right.
	Elaborate	So, when you write, you really must think. You could write this sentence with <i>might strengthen the U.S. economy</i> but that's like stating that you're not really sure. But when you write <i>will</i> , that's like you're saying you think that it's very highly possible that granting amnesty will strengthen the U.S. economy.
	Direct	Let's underline <i>will</i> in blue.

To review the language features that we had noticed and discussed in this first lesson in the Detailed Reading stage, I reemphasized that *nominalizations*, *modals*, *causal links*, and

evaluative language were all important language tools that function to allow the author to convey an authoritative, impersonal stance. I further emphasized that writing in this academic way was quite distinct from spoken language. I stated:

That's the biggest challenge. Not just for you, but for English-speaking students who are learning to write in an academic way. Yes, the way you speak at home and all that knowledge in your head are beautiful things, but when you have to turn that into academic writing, you have to realize you're communicating in a different way.

Using the current sentence of focus as an example, I wrote and explained that writing the sentence "The U.S. government must allow undocumented immigrants to become legal and stay in the U.S. because this will strengthen the U.S. economy" was a more *speech-like* way to express the meaning in this sentence. I elaborated that by using a nominalization, the author focused on *the act of* allowing undocumented immigrants to stay instead of *who* was allowing them to stay since readers could figure out that it was the U.S. government doing the action.

At that point, a student asked if we could also underline *strengthen the U.S. economy* in yellow as an example of positive evaluative language. I affirmed that suggestion, and we underlined that wording in yellow on the model persuasive argument essay.

I ended this lesson at that point and told students that the next day we would continue to deconstruct the pro-amnesty essay and identify the author's use of language resources that function to build the three meanings in a persuasive argument essay.

6.2.2 The second lesson in the detailed reading stage

To begin lesson two, I asked students to tell a partner what the author's purpose in the first paragraph of the pro-amnesty model persuasive argument essay was as well as what they had learned about the language resources the author used in this paragraph in the preceding lesson.

After this peer discussion, I stated that I wanted to take a moment to review nominalization before we continued with the fifth sentence in the first paragraph. I stated:

Nominalization is an important tool in academic writing. It has different functions. One is to take a big action and state it as *an event* or a *thing*. This lets the author keep the focus on the *thing* and not on who is doing it. Otherwise, in this essay, I would have to keep writing, ‘The U.S. government should, or must, or has to . . .’ But I *know* it’s the U.S. government that will grant amnesty. I want to make my stance about *granting amnesty*. I want to make that the focus, not so much what the government should do. And here’s another prize or benefit of nominalization—it lets me state what will be the result of that act or *thing*. And, I can judge it. I can write what I think about that result. So, it’s a structure, an academic language writing tool: *thing, result, my opinion of result* using evaluative language.

I focused students’ attention on the fifth sentence in the first paragraph. I read this sentence aloud from my copy on the Elmo while students read along silently on their own copies: “In addition, permitting undocumented immigrants to remain in the U.S. legally will increase tax revenues that can improve public services for everyone.”

First, I focused students’ attention on meaning by paraphrasing that in this sentence the author put forth a second argument for granting amnesty. The author stated that if the U.S. government gave permission, or permitted, undocumented immigrants to stay in the U.S., then there would be more money from taxes that the government could use to pay for better public services for everyone.

I asked which words meant “all of the money that the government collects from taxes and can spend,” and students replied, “*Revenue*.” I affirmed that response and turned students’ attention to the linguistic resources in this sentence.

I asked students to identify the words the author had used to connect this second argument to the first one in the preceding sentence, and students replied, “*In addition*.” I noted

that we often called this type of word a *transition word* but that we would label it by drawing a line to the margin and writing *connector*.

I noted that the author had again used a nominalization to present this second argument and invited students to underline *permitting undocumented immigrants to remain in the U.S. legally* in purple. I reiterated that using this nominalization allowed the author to state this *act of permitting* authoritatively and then to indicate and evaluate the result of this act.

I asked students to name the result of “permitting undocumented immigrants to remain in the U.S. legally” and they said, “*Increase tax revenues.*” I affirmed that response and invited students to circle the verb *increase* in brown to identify it as a causal link.

I then asked students to identify which word showed *how possible* the author believed it was that permitting undocumented immigrants to stay legally in the U.S. would lead to increased tax revenues, and a few students answered, “*Will.*” I affirmed that response, and we underlined *will* in blue. I asked students to notice the use of the modal *can* in the clause *that can improve public services for everyone*.

I explained that as the author I had made a choice to use *can* instead of *will* to indicate my opinion that just because the government had more taxes dollars, it may not spend it to improve public services. I stated, “The government *can* choose to spend extra revenue on public services, but I’m not sure they *will* choose to.” I asked students to underline *can* in blue as a modal.

I used this opportunity to emphasize the importance of authorial choice, which was influenced by the language features and social purpose of a given genre, in the following exchange:

Teacher	Elaborate	So, you ask yourself as a writer, “Why am I choosing the words I’m choosing? What
---------	-----------	---

function, what job, are these words doing for me? What would happen if I chose different words? How would that affect my meaning? Or the authority with which I'm writing? Or how strongly I'm making my case to the reader in a persuasive argument essay?" OK, so the language tools depend on what job you're doing.

	Focus	You're writing a persuasive argument essay and the purpose is to?
Students	Propose	Persuade.
Teacher	Affirm	OK, persuade.
	Elaborate	Never forget that purpose. That requires a set of tools, and those are the tools we're learning.

I then asked students to identify the author's use of positive evaluative language in this sentence, and students called out, *legally*, *increase*, *improve*, and *for everyone*, and I affirmed those responses. I stated that I wanted students to notice another language feature in this fifth sentence, or the way that the author had created a *chain of reasoning*.

I pointed to the fifth sentence on my copy of the model persuasive argument essay at the Elmo and explained that the author could have put a period after the word *revenues* and then continued with a new sentence such as, "If the government has more revenue from taxes, then it can provide improved public services for everyone." But instead, the author chose to add the clause *that can improve public services for everyone* to create a *chain of reasoning* within one sentence.

To provide a visual representation of this *chain of reasoning*, I drew a chain of circles linked together and asked students to write in their notebooks, "Permitting undocumented immigrants to stay = more tax \$\$ to spend = improved public services." I stated that *clause*

combining was a useful tool for writing in an academic way and an indicator that a student had developed the ability to write academically (Christie, 2012).

I focused students' attention on the final sentence in the introductory paragraph and read aloud as students read along silently, "Most importantly, providing undocumented immigrants with the opportunity to live freely and securely will prove that the U.S. government's actions match its ideals." I pointed out that this sentence represented the third and final argument presented in the introductory paragraph.

I paraphrased this last sentence as another way of stating that if the U.S. government gave amnesty to undocumented immigrants then it could demonstrate or prove that "its actions match its words," or that it was true that the U.S. government truly believed that the United States was a land of opportunity where everyone could live freely and securely. I asked students to identify the word that meant "beliefs or values," and students responded, "*Ideals*."

I then focused students' attention on the language resources employed by the author in this final sentence of the introductory paragraph. I asked, "Which words did the author use to let the reader know that this last argument was the strongest one?" Students responded, "*Most importantly*." I affirmed and elaborated that *most importantly* functioned here as a connector to allow the author to express, *And my biggest reason for amnesty is* in an authoritative, impersonal way.

I invited students to label *most importantly* as a connector that contributed to building both the second kind of meaning, Projection of an Authoritative Stance, as well as the third kind of meaning, Construction of a Well-Organized Text. I then stated that the author had again used a nominalization to present this third and final argument and asked students to identify that nominalization.

After identifying *providing undocumented immigrants with the opportunity to live freely and securely*, we underlined this nominalization in purple. At this point, Asha asked, “Is that all I have to do is put *ing* and I can make a nominalization?” I thanked Asha for posing this question and replied:

It’s a good way to make a nominalization. You can see I used it here in *allowing, permitting, and providing*. These are not verbs any longer. They’re functioning here as nouns; they’ve switched from verb to noun. They’re called *gerunds*, or “verbs being used as nouns.” So, using a gerund to make a nominalization helps us to think of the action as *the act of*. . . There are other ways to make nominalizations, and we’ll see some examples.

I asked students to identify the causal link in this sentence that connected this act to its result, and they responded, “*Prove*,” which we circled in brown. I asked which word the author had chosen to indicate a high degree of possibility that by completing the act of *providing undocumented immigrants with the opportunity to live freely and securely*, the U.S. government would prove that its actions matched its values or ideals. The students responded, “*Will*,” and one student said, “Underline in blue.”

I then asked students to name the positive evaluative language that the author had used in this sentence, and they responded, “*Opportunity, live freely and securely, and ideals*, which were underlined in yellow. To conclude this examination of the introductory paragraph, I directed students to spend a few moments with a partner to identify all the synonyms that the author had used for *granting amnesty* in this first paragraph.

I emphasized that using synonyms was a useful language resource for referring to the same ideas with different words and that this language tool enabled an author to keep emphasizing the same points in an interesting way that could keep the reader’s attention.

After a few minutes of partner discussion, students were able to identify *allowing undocumented immigrants to become legal and stay in the U.S., permitting undocumented immigrants to remain in the U.S. legally, and providing undocumented immigrants with the opportunity to live freely and securely* as synonyms for *granting amnesty*. I directed students to also underline all of these nominalizations in green to code them as synonyms.

I conducted a brief review of the language resources that the author had used to present content and write authoritatively in an organized way in the introductory paragraph. I named these language tools (e.g., nominalizations, modals, causal links, relational processes, synonyms, connectors, and positive evaluative language) and restated their functions as I pointed to them on my color-coded copy of the model persuasive argument essay at the Elmo.

I complimented students on their hard work in deconstructing this introductory paragraph with me in a detailed way and stated that we would continue to identify the language resources that functioned to build the three meanings in a persuasive argument essay the next day.

6.2.3 The third lesson in detailed reading stage

To afford students the opportunity to verbalize what they had learned in the Detailed Reading lessons to date, I asked students to refer to the color-coded introductory paragraph to talk with a partner for a few moments about the language resources the author had chosen and the way those language resources functioned as tools to make the three kinds of meanings in this paragraph.

After this peer discussion, I directed students' attention to the second paragraph in the pro-amnesty model persuasive essay:

According to Immigration ProCon.org, many people naively believe that undocumented immigrants take jobs away from American citizens. On the contrary, undocumented workers currently provide countless services by

performing jobs that most Americans find undesirable. For instance, millions of undocumented workers harvest crops, clean hotels, and work in food service across the nation! Clearly, this steady labor force allows American businesses to prosper by keeping their customers happy. Furthermore, granting undocumented immigrants the right to work legally means that these hard-working individuals can also access educational opportunities that may lead to better jobs which will stimulate the economy through the innovation of new products and services and the opening of new businesses.

I read the paragraph aloud as students read along silently. I paraphrased this second paragraph by stating that the author began with a counter-argument that undocumented immigrants take jobs away from Americans. The author then refuted the counter-argument, or stated why it was wrong.

I stated that the author provided examples of the kinds of jobs that many undocumented immigrants do which helps American businesses to grow. Finally, I noted that the author suggested that if undocumented immigrants become legal, then they may go to college, get better jobs, open new businesses, and create new products and services which would all lead to a stronger U.S. economy.

I asked students what the purpose of this second paragraph was in the structure of the persuasive argument essay genre, and a student answered, “To make first argument and give evidence.” I affirmed that response and asked students to identify the first argument that the author had presented in the introductory paragraph. A student read the sentence, “Allowing undocumented immigrants to become legal and stay in the U.S. will strengthen the U. S. economy.”

I focused students’ attention by reading the first sentence, “According to Immigration ProCon.org, many people naively believe that undocumented immigrants take jobs away from American citizens” and facilitating the following exchange:

Teacher	Focus	Which word do I use to show my opinion of the people who believe this?
Students	Identify	<i>Naively.</i>
Teacher	Affirm	Right.
	Focus	Have you seen this word?
Students	Propose	No.
Teacher	Elaborate	<i>Naively</i> means that you don't know any better. You're naïve. You have no clue. I used this word here to communicate that people who think undocumented immigrants are taking jobs from Americans are clueless; they're clearly wrong. I don't have to write "I think they're wrong" when I have chosen the adverb <i>naively</i> to do that job for me.
Teacher	Direct	Let's underline <i>naively</i> as an adverb in red and in orange as negative evaluative language.

I asked students to also notice that in this sentence, the author used the phrase, *According to Immigration ProCon.org*, as a way to present the counter-argument and introduce other's voices into the essay. I pointed out that the verb choice *believe* functioned to allow this introduction of other's voices. I identified *believe* as a "mental process," or a "verb of thinking," that was useful for bringing in other's voices, and we drew a black box around it.

I pointed to and read the second sentence, "On the contrary, undocumented workers currently provide countless services by performing jobs that most Americans find undesirable." I explained that in this sentence, the author refuted the counter-argument introduced in the first sentence. I elaborated:

It's very important, as a persuasive writer, when you introduce a counter-argument, you don't just let it stand there. You have to refute it. The counter-argument is the opposite of what I believe as the author, so I'm going to make sure that the reader isn't confused. I want the reader to understand that the counter-argument *does not* represent my viewpoint,

that I think people who believe this are wrong, so I'm going to refute it.

I asked students which phrase the author had used to refute the counter-argument, and they replied, "*On the contrary.*" We labeled *on the contrary* as a "connector to refute" in the margin. A student asked, "Is that only way you could refute?" and I responded that an author could choose other language resources for refuting such as, *actually*, *however*, or *in reality*.

I asked students which word in this sentence meant "numerous or so, so many," and they responded, "*Countless.*" I affirmed that response and indicated that the choice of the word *countless* was an example of positive evaluative language as it emphasized the extent of the services provided by undocumented workers. We underlined *countless* in yellow. I reiterated the notion that the author of a persuasive argument essay used evaluative language as a tool to persuade the reader by including his or her judgment about the topic throughout the essay.

A student suggested that we should underline *undesirable* in orange as negative evaluative language, and I affirmed that suggestion. Next, I turned students' attention to the third sentence and reread aloud, "For instance, millions of undocumented workers harvest crops, clean hotels and work in food service across the nation." I stated that in this sentence the author had simply provided direct examples of the countless jobs undocumented workers do that most Americans find undesirable.

I asked students to identify the phrase the author had used as a connector, and they replied, "*For instance,*" which we labeled in the margin. I asked students to identify the words that meant, "going on everywhere," and they replied, "*Across the nation.*" I asked which other word was a positive evaluation of how many undocumented workers performed these jobs, and several students said, "*Millions.*" I invited students to underline *across the nation* and *millions* in yellow.

I focused students' attention on the fourth sentence and invited a student to reread, "Clearly, this steady labor force allows American businesses to prosper by keeping their customers happy." I asked students to identify a synonym for the "millions of undocumented workers," and a student answered, "*This steady labor force.*"

I affirmed that response and elaborated:

This is a word that is doing an important job here. When I write, *this steady labor force*, I am indicating that I already introduced this idea. As the reader, you know I'm not introducing a new idea. I'm just calling it something different. So, by *this steady labor force*, I mean these "millions of undocumented workers."

I further elaborated that *this steady labor force* was a big noun phrase and that *labor force* and *steady* indicated the author's judgment that this labor force represented a group of laborers that would continue to be available to work. I invited students to underline *millions of undocumented workers* and *this steady labor force* in green as synonyms and to underline *this steady labor force* in yellow as positive evaluative language.

I asked students which phrase meant, "You have to be able to see that . . ." and they responded, "*Clearly.*" I named *clearly* as an adverb that functioned to build the author's stance in an authoritative way. I noted that by choosing *clearly*, the author avoided, *I think it's clear that . . .* I invited students to underline *clearly* in red as an adverb and to also label it as a connector.

I asked students to identify the word that meant "to do well financially," and students replied, "*Prosper.*" I affirmed that response and elaborated that when a business prospers, the business is successful; it is doing well financially; it is making money. I invited students to underline *prosper* in yellow.

I then asked students which verb the author used to link the noun phrase *this steady labor force* to its result for American businesses, and students responded, “Allows.” I affirmed that response and named *allows* as a causal link, which we circled in brown.

Finally, I asked students how this steady labor force of undocumented workers helped American businesses to prosper, and they replied, “Keep customers happy.” I affirmed that response, and we underlined *happy* in yellow.

To conclude the lesson, I made the point that all of the author’s language choices that functioned to create a well-written persuasive argument essay were purposeful. I stated:

Good writing doesn’t happen by accident. I’m making purposeful choices as the writer. I ask myself, “What am I trying to accomplish, and what are the best tools that I can choose from language itself because it’s language that creates meaning and lets me write what I want to write in the way that I want to write it?” When you write, you can choose different words, but if you want to write in an academic style in a persuasive argument essay that your professor in college might read and say, “What a good piece of writing!” It takes some work. It takes a different way of thinking about the way that you use language as tool.

As it was almost time for the bell, I praised students for their hard work and great thinking and indicated that we would complete the second paragraph and move on to the third paragraph tomorrow.

6.2.4 The fourth lesson in the detailed reading stage

To begin this Detailed Reading lesson, I asked students to take a few moments to explain to a partner how a writer of a persuasive argument essay could create a *chain of reasoning*. I invited students to share out after this peer discussion.

The students’ responses included, “Use connectors like *in addition* and *for example*; “Use adverbs like *clearly*; “Use synonyms;” and from one student, “Start with nominalization, say

result, then judge.” I affirmed these responses and stated that in today’s lesson we would finish carefully reading the second paragraph and begin the third one.

I asked students to reread the second paragraph in order to recall what it was about and prepare to work with the final sentence. After this silent rereading, I reread the final sentence, “Furthermore, granting undocumented immigrants the right to work legally means that these hard-working individuals can also access educational opportunities that may lead to better jobs which will stimulate the economy through the innovation of new products and services and the opening of new businesses.”

I observed aloud that this sentence was “too long,” which good writers should try to avoid. I explained that my intention was to use the language resource of *clause combining* to provide an example of the way that an author could build a *chain of reasoning* when writing a persuasive argument essay.

I paraphrased the “spoken-language” way of communicating a chain of reasoning in this sentence as, “If the government grants amnesty to undocumented workers then these hard workers can go to college and that means they can get better jobs and if they have better jobs, then they will invent new products and services and open new businesses and that means that the economy will grow stronger.”

I noted that the author had used clause combining and other language tools to create this chain of reasoning in an academic, authoritative way that was distinct from this “spoken-language way” of communicating. I asked students which word the author used to convey the idea, “OK, I have one more thing to add to what I’ve said to develop this first argument so far?” and a student responded, “*Furthermore*.”

I affirmed that response and noted that *furthermore* was a connector which was an academic word choice for *also* or *in addition*. I noted that an author generally chose *furthermore* to present an additional idea or example after a few ideas or examples had already been presented, that it functioned to mean, “And let me emphasize with one more point.”

I elaborated further that since the author had already presented ideas or examples in this paragraph by using the connectors *for instance* and *clearly*, the connector *furthermore* worked well here. I asked students to draw a line to the margin from *furthermore* and to mark it as a connector. A student asked, “Do you always use connector in chain of reasoning?” I responded:

Yes, connectors are very useful tools. When I use them, it’s like I’m saying to the reader, “Come on, I’m taking you with me. We’re going this way.” I’m linking my ideas together so I don’t lose you as the reader. And you realize, “She’s still talking about the same thing; she’s linking ideas together like a big chain.”

I focused students’ attention on the author’s use of the nominalization, *granting undocumented immigrants the right to work legally*, which meant “the act of giving undocumented immigrants the right to work legally.” I invited students to underline this nominalization in purple. I asked, “What does *the right to work legally* refer to?” and students responded, “Amnesty.” I affirmed that response, and we indicated that phrase as a synonym for amnesty with the color green.

I noted that the author used a *relational process* or the verb *means* to state what the act of granting the right to work legally meant, or signified, for undocumented immigrants. We underlined *means* in brown, and I asked what this act of granting the right to work legally signified for undocumented immigrants. A student responded, “Can access educational opportunities, like go to college.”

I affirmed that response noting that the verb *access* functioned as a causal link, and we drew a brown circle around it. I asked, “What color should we use to underline *can*?” and students responded, “Blue for modal.” I affirmed that response and elaborated that, as the author, I chose *can* instead of *will* to convey the opinion that it was possible that many undocumented immigrants might go to college if amnesty were granted but that not all immigrants would make this choice.

I refocused students’ attention on the clause *that these hard-working individuals can also access educational opportunities*, and asked “Who is the author referring to with the phrase *these hard-working individuals*?” and students responded, “The undocumented immigrants.” I affirmed that response and invited students to underline *undocumented immigrants* and *these hard-working individuals* in green as synonyms.

I further elaborated that the word *these* functioned in the same way as *this* had functioned in the noun phrase *this steady labor force*. *These* served to alert the reader that the author was referring to, or pointing back, to something that had already been introduced, in this case, the undocumented immigrants.

I asked students to turn to a partner and identify three synonyms that the author had used to refer to *undocumented immigrants* in this paragraph. Students shared the responses *undocumented workers*, *this steady labor force*, and *these hard-working individuals*.

I refocused students’ attention on the *chain of reasoning* the author built in this sentence. I noted that the author had stated that granting amnesty meant some of these hard-working undocumented immigrants may go to college or some other kind of higher education. Then, the author added the clause *that may lead to better jobs* to indicate the result of getting further education and the clause *which will stimulate the economy* to indicate the end result.

I asked students to identify the causal links in these two clauses, and they named *lead to* and *stimulate*, which we circled in brown. I asked them to identify the modals, and they named *may* and *will*, which we underlined in blue.

I then asked, “So, how does the author suggest that the economy will be stimulated? How will that happen?” Several students repeated the clause *through the innovation of new products and services and the opening of new businesses* directly from the paragraph. I affirmed that response and asked, “So, what does that mean? What does the *innovation of new products and services* mean?”

A senior answered, “I know this word. Remember when I read the book about Thomas Edison to write book proof for my portfolio? I learned this word. It means like to invent, to think of idea for new product.” I thanked this student for the excellent explanation and asked students to notice that *innovation* was the noun form of the verb *to innovate* and that it meant “the act of innovating or inventing something.”

I commented that the author could have chosen the synonym *invention* in place of *innovation* in this sentence, and I asked students to name a recent innovation or invention. A student called out, “Iphone,” and another said, “Ipad.” I affirmed these responses and noted that the author had used the preposition *through* and then a giant nominalization to indicate how the economy would be stimulated. I invited students to underline *the innovation of new products and services and the opening of new businesses* in purple.

To review the author’s construction of the chain of reasoning in this paragraph, I stated:

So, if undocumented immigrants get legal permission to work, they’ll get an education, which will lead to a better job, which will make the economy stronger. How? They’ll open businesses and think of new ideas, products, and services. They’ll provide innovation. They’re smart, capable people. If you give them a chance to work and study and get better jobs, they’ll use all of this knowledge and experience to create a better economy through

new products and services for everyone.

At this point, Htoo, the ninth grade focal student from Myanmar, offered an opinion about why this entire scenario could be viewed as negative. In short, he stated that if undocumented immigrants were able to obtain an education and attain better jobs, there would not be any people left to do all the undesirable jobs that Americans did not want to do.

I thanked Htoo for this interesting perspective and noted that one ideal that the United States government and most people had come to embrace was that of a *free market economy*, which meant that “the best services, the best workers, and the best products were the ones people wanted.” I suggested that there would always be other workers to take the place of those who were able to get better jobs through more education, innovation, and hard work.

This discussion led another student to comment, “In the strip district, there’s a place over there, there’s no white people work there because Americans only work like one week, then they quit.” I thanked this student for a good example of the notion that some Americans found certain jobs to be undesirable.

I refocused the students on the second paragraph and invited them to notice the author’s use of positive evaluative language in the last sentence. Students called out, “*Legally, hard-working, educational opportunities, better jobs, stimulate the economy, innovation, and opening of new businesses.*” I affirmed those responses, and we underlined all of those wordings in yellow.

To conclude the lesson, I stated that I wanted to take a moment to show students an example I had prepared of the kind of writing that they often produced which represented a “spoken-language way” of creating a chain of reasoning. I suggested that this example would help them to compare the authoritative, academic way the author had used to create a chain of

reasoning in the last sentence of the second paragraph with a more typical, “speech-like” style. I said, “I’m going to put this example on the Elmo, and I’d like you to take a moment to read it.”

I placed the following example on the Elmo for students to read:

Also, the government should give undocumented immigrants amnesty because then they can go to college. And when people go to college, they can get better jobs. Also, some immigrants might invent new things or they can open new businesses after they get more education. So, I think if these immigrants get amnesty and they can work legally, then the economy will get stronger.

The students laughed and affirmed that they often wrote in this manner. I reemphasized that the point of taking so much time to study and discuss the language resources in this model persuasive argument essay was to help them to consider *exactly how* they could choose to use these language tools to present content in an authoritative, academic and organized way when writing a persuasive argument essay now or in the future.

As only a few minutes remained in the class period, I share that we would continue with paragraph three without the seniors as they would be present for ten minutes and would then report to the gymnasium. I also indicated that on the day after that, students would complete some practice with nominalizations and modality with a substitute teacher while I attended another ESL teachers’ in-service day.

6.2.5 The fifth lesson in detailed reading stage

To open this lesson I informed students that I had prepared a *Recap* of the language resources that the author had employed in paragraphs one and two of the pro-amnesty model persuasive essay which I wanted to review before the seniors were called to the gym.

I distributed the *Recap*, which I include as Figure 11 below:

*Modality: Used to allow author to convey *how necessary* or *how possible* it is that something happen.

*Nominalization: Used to present arguments in introduction and restate them in body paragraphs. Sets author up to state the result of an *act* and then to evaluate or judge that result.

*Causal Link: Used to indicate the result, or consequence, of the *act* expressed in a nominalization.

*Relational Processes: Used to define key terms.

*Mental and Verbal Processes: Used to *project* or *bring in* other's voices.

*Connectors: Used to link ideas between paragraphs and within paragraphs to create an organized text.

*Referents: Used to refer to or *point back to* an idea already named.

*Synonyms: Used to enhance academic style by referring to the same ideas with different words.

*Evaluative Language: Used to make writing strongly persuasive and convey the author's stance in an authoritative, impersonal way.

*Clause Combining: Used to express ideas in an academic way that is different from speech.

*Refutation: Used to refute or state an argument opposite of the counter-argument.

These language resources are the tools that the author used to present and support arguments in an authoritative, impersonal, organized way. These language resources are like “stars that brighten the night sky to illuminate the way.” They are a *CONSTELLATION* of tools that work together to PRESENT CONTENT, PROJECT AN AUTHORITATIVE STANCE, AND CONSTRUCT AN ORGANIZED TEXT.



Figure 11. A Recap of Language Resources Used in Paragraphs 1 and 2

While I projected the Recap at the Elmo, I stated that students could consider all of the linguistic tools, or language resources, employed by the author in paragraphs one and two as a

constellation of resources (Schleppegrell, 2001). I pointed to the visual representation at the bottom of the Recap, and elaborated that an author could choose among these language tools to *guide* the reader through a persuasive argument essay, just like the stars in the night sky can *guide* the way to a destination.

I reiterated that in the introductory paragraph, the author stated his or her stance through a thesis statement that included modality and a consequential marker, or causal link. Then, the author presented each argument by using nominalization, modality, a causal link, and evaluative language to judge the result of *the act*, or “action turned into a thing,” named by the nominalization.

I continued that in the second paragraph, the author developed the first argument in an authoritative way and chose to present a counter-argument which was then refuted. The author chose to bring in other’s voices by using mental or verbal processes, or verbs of thinking and saying.

I reemphasized that the author continued to use evaluative language to strengthen her stance, or to make her “attitude” about the topic clear to the reader. In addition, the author used language tools such as connectors, nominalizations with modals and causal links, and clause combining to create a chain of reasoning. Finally, the author had used synonyms and other referents, such as words like *this* or *these* before nouns that had already been named to help the reader “keep track” of the content presented.

The ten seniors were called to the gym, and I stated that the remaining students and I would read and discuss the third paragraph. I asked students what the author’s purpose was in the third paragraph of a persuasive argument essay in the typical structure of this genre, and a student replied, “Develop the second argument.”

The remaining students and I worked more quickly to work through a Detailed Reading of paragraph three. I provide paragraph three below followed by a summary of the reading and discussion of this paragraph:

Some Americans claim that U.S. tax dollars are spent unwisely on public services for undocumented immigrants, such as education and health care. In reality, the U.S. government's attempt to prevent undocumented immigrants from entering the U.S. and to deport those who are already here wastes billions of dollars each year. Interestingly, U.S. taxpayers are footing the bill for these misguided efforts! It is evident that permission to work for undocumented immigrants ensures that these workers will pay the same taxes as everyone else. This increase in tax revenue will lead to improved public services for everyone. For example, the availability of more revenue from taxes can support an improvement of public services in health, education, and transportation.

I read this paragraph aloud while students followed along and then paraphrased the meaning. I stated that in this paragraph the author developed the second argument that permitting undocumented immigrants to work legally in the U.S. through amnesty would mean that the government would have more tax revenue to spend on improving public services.

I elaborated that the author chose to begin with the counter-argument that some people said that the government was already spending a lot of tax dollars on public services, like education and healthcare, for undocumented immigrants. The author then refuted this argument by stating that the government was actually spending a lot more money, even billions of dollars, to try to keep immigrants out of the U.S. and to send them back when they were caught than it was spending on public services.

I stated that the author emphasized that the U.S. taxpayers were the ones that were paying for the government's efforts to keep out and deport undocumented immigrants. The author then stated that it was very clear that giving permission to work to undocumented immigrants meant that these workers would pay taxes like everyone else and that this "extra" tax revenue could be used to offer better public services to everyone.

Throughout this lesson, the students and I used the same strategies that had been employed to deconstruct and discuss the first two paragraphs. That is, the students and I discussed lexical items and highlighted the language resources that the author used to present content, project an authoritative stance, and construct an organized text.

For example, we drew a black box around the verb *claim* to identify it as a “verbal process” that functioned to include the voices of some Americans in a second counter-argument. We identified the phrase *in reality*, as another tool, just like *on the contrary*, for refutation of a counter-argument.

We underlined *the U.S. government’s attempt to prevent undocumented immigrants from entering the U.S. and to deport those who are already here* in purple as a nominalization. We drew a brown circle around *wastes* to identify it as a causal link that functioned to express the result of this nominalization. We underlined *wastes billions of dollars each year* in orange to show the author’s negative judgment about the way that the government spent so much money to prevent undocumented immigrants from coming to the U.S. and to deport those who were found to be here illegally.

We identified and color-coded *interestingly* as an adverb and as a connector that allowed the author to present the opinion that it was really *rather funny* or *ironic* that U.S. taxpayers were the ones paying “so much money” for the government’s efforts to keep out and deport undocumented immigrants while some taxpayers complained that the government was spending too much money to provide healthcare and education for undocumented immigrants.

We figured out that *footing the bill* was negative evaluative language that meant “paying for,” and that *these misguided efforts* was a synonym for “the U.S. government’s attempt to prevent undocumented immigrants from entering the U.S. and to deport those already here.” We

identified *it is evident* as a useful language choice for the author to persuade the reader in an authoritative, academic way to accept the author's stance as true and correct.

We marked *permission to work for undocumented immigrants* as a nominalization and another synonym for "granting amnesty." We circled *ensures* in brown as another causal link, and identified *will pay the same taxes as everyone else* as positive evaluative language.

At this point, I called students' attention to another language resource, that of *thematic progression*. I asked students to notice that the author took the idea presented in the sentence that ended *will pay the same taxes as everyone else* and made that idea the *main message*, or the starting point, of the next sentence by naming this idea as, "This increase in tax revenue."

I explained in commonsense terms that *thematic progression* was a useful language tool for creating a chain of reasoning and for writing an organized text. That is, *thematic progression* was a language tool that functioned to build coherence and helped the writer to "guide" the reader.

The students and I then noted that *this increase in tax revenue* was also a nominalization, that *will* was an example of the use of a modal that indicated *high possibility* and that *lead to* was a causal link that stated the result of the nominalization, *this increase in tax revenue*. We noted that the author judged this result positively as *improved public services for everyone* and then strengthened this claim by providing direct examples of the public services that would be improved due to having more tax revenue available.

Finally, I stated and wrote the chain of reasoning that the author had developed through use of the language resources as: "Keeping undocumented immigrants out and deporting them = huge waste of money; giving them permission to work = they pay taxes like other citizens = the

government has more tax revenue = everyone has better healthcare, education, and transportation!”

I reminded these students that I would not be in the classroom the next day and stated that they would complete some practice with nominalizations and modals. I commented that I would count on them to explain the language tools that the author used in paragraph three to the seniors when I returned.

6.2.6 The sixth lesson in the detailed reading stage

To begin the lesson, I asked students to share some examples from the nominalization (see Appendix R) and modality (see Appendix S) tasks with a different partner than the one with whom they had previously worked.

The front side of the nominalization task reiterated the explanation for nominalization and its function and provided several examples connected to students’ experience. On the back side, the directions stated, “Read the first sentence in each item below. Use a nominalization in the second sentence and indicate a result of that “thing.” I invited students who had completed the practice to share some of their responses at the Elmo. I provide a few examples from focal students’ work below. Grammatical and spelling mistakes remain:

From Roshan:

Sentence:	TV violence is not good for children.
His nominalization:	Watching violence on TV will affect teens.

From Soe:

Sentence:	Reading is one of the best ways to learn new words.
His nominalization:	Reading variety of books will increase vocabulary.

From Asha:

Sentence: Everyone should exercise!
Her nominalization: Working out will help everyone to stay in shape.

From Pilar:

Sentence: Stephen King said it's important to read a lot of different kinds of books.

Her nominalization: Reading different kinds of books will increase his or her knowleges.

Although all of these students had chosen gerunds to create nominalizations, these examples reflected that students could create a nominalization and indicate the result of *the act* expressed by the nominalization.

Next, I invited a few students to share examples from the modality task. On this task, students were provided with a chart of modals expressing degrees of possibility and necessity as well as example sentences to discuss with their partner. Students were then asked to follow a prompt to write sentences that used modals to express varying degrees of possibility and necessity. Examples from focal students' work are provided below:

From Pilar:

Prompt: Write a sentence that shows that you are *not very sure* that higher education leads to a good job in the future.

Response: Higher education may leads to a good job in the future.

Prompt: Write a sentence that shows that you are *quite sure* that higher education leads to a good job in the future.

Response: Higher education will leads to a good job in the future.

From Asha:

Prompt: Write a sentence that reveals that it's extremely necessary for students to read many different kinds of books.

Response: Students must read many different kinds of books.

Prompt: Write a sentence that reveals that it's rather (or fairly) necessary for students to read many different kinds of books.

Response: Students have to read many different kinds of books.

I thanked students for sharing their responses and refocused students' attention on the pro-amnesty model persuasive essay. I asked the ninth, tenth, and eleventh grade students to partner with a senior to share and explain the language resources that we had identified in paragraph three yesterday after the seniors had left.

After this partner work, I focused students' attention on the fourth paragraph of the model persuasive essay. I explained that during this lesson, we would work in a different way. I said that I would read the paragraph as they read along and that we would discuss the meaning of the paragraph as usual.

However, I would then ask students to work in pairs or small groups to identify the language resources that the author employed to develop the third and final argument that granting amnesty to undocumented immigrants would allow the U.S. government to prove that it believed in freedom and security for all people.

I made this decision to afford students the opportunity to work together to identify and discuss the linguistic resources in this paragraph for two reasons. First, we had spent several class periods deconstructing the first three paragraphs of the model text and identifying and discussing the language resources evident in these paragraphs in the same manner. Secondly, I wanted to formatively assess whether all students were noticing the way that the author employed these language resources or whether some students were simply "following along" as we color-coded and discussed the language tools.

Thus, I decided that asking students to work with peers to notice and discuss the language tools in the fourth paragraph would serve as a mini formative assessment of their learning. I provide the fourth paragraph of the pro-amnesty model persuasive essay below:

Throughout its history, the U.S. has proclaimed that it is a land of opportunity for all people who desire to live freely and work hard to provide a secure life for their families. Giving this opportunity to undocumented immigrants through amnesty is a way for the U.S. to prove that this ideal is true. Undocumented immigrants come to the U.S. to escape desperate poverty and to seek a better life for their families. Many undocumented parents even risk their lives and the lives of their small children to enter the U.S. in order to take part in this American promise. These parents often work two or three jobs to provide food, clothing, and housing for their families. A governmental decision to grant amnesty will prove that the U.S. is a nation that values people who have the determination to realize the American dream.

I stated that I thought students knew most of the meanings of the words in this paragraph but that I wanted to check their understanding of a few words. I said, “Look at the first sentence. Which word means, “declared or strongly stated,” and a student answered, “*Proclaimed.*” I affirmed that response and elaborated that to *proclaim* something meant “to state that idea strongly as a truth in a very public way.”

I elaborated further that in this sentence, the author was “calling out” the U.S. government by stating that ever since the United States had become a country, the government had *issued the proclamation* or *declared as true* or *proclaimed as a truth* that the United States was a land of opportunity and freedom for everyone.

I directed students’ attention to the third sentence and asked “Which phrase means “a state of being extremely poor,” and a few students responded, “*Desperate poverty.*” I affirmed that answer and elaborated that we were all aware that there were degrees of poverty, or *poorness*.

I explained that although there were people who were quite poor in the United States, it was not the same kind of poverty experienced by people in other parts of the world who had absolutely no stable source of food, water, or housing. One student from Nepal commented, “Like us when the refugee camp catch on fire and everything burn and we live in the forest.” I affirmed that the situation several students had experienced as a result of this fire was a real example of desperate poverty.

I directed students to the next sentence and asked them to identify the word that meant “to take a big chance,” and several students said, “*Risk*.” I asked students if there were any other words whose meanings they did not know, but no one posed a question.

Thus, I asked students to work with a partner or in small groups to reread paragraph four together in order to think about and talk about the language resources the author had used to create the three kinds of meanings in this paragraph. I suggested that they could refer to the color coding on the other paragraphs as well as to the Recap to help them.

While circulating and engaging with students as they worked, I observed that identifying the language tools was easier for some pairs than for others. For example, one pair told me, “We can only find positive language, that’s all.” Other pairs were able to identify nominalizations and causal links, (e.g., *a governmental decision to grant amnesty will prove that ...*) and a few pairs identified the author’s use of synonyms (e.g., *land of opportunity for all people, this ideal, this American promise, this American dream*).

Another pair needed further support in understanding the meaning of *proclaim* and in identifying this word as a “verbal process.” I observed other pairs having exchanges such as, “What’s this?” “It’s a modal.” “Oh yeah,” and “This ideal mean land of opportunity?” “Yeah, that’s a synonym, good job.”

Overall, this student-to-student task to notice and discuss the language resources in the fourth paragraph revealed that some students had begun to appropriate the metalanguage for discussing the language tools while others struggled to do so without teacher guidance. This revelation was unsurprising to me as the curriculum these students had engaged with in the English as a Second Language (ESL) classroom since entering the U.S. school system was not genre-based.

Moreover, although guided interaction to support reading comprehension through the use of vocabulary strategies and inferential questioning was a typical part of the teaching and learning process in this classroom, I had not previously designed an instructional unit with a linguistic perspective at the core.

After the student-to-student task, I reviewed the language resources in paragraph four with the whole class, inviting students to share the language tools that they had noticed and discussed. For instance, we color coded the nominalizations in the second and last sentences, the synonyms for *the land of opportunity*, the use of relational processes (e.g., *is*) to define the United States, the verbal process *proclaimed*, and the “highly possible” modal *will* connected to the causal link *prove* in the last sentence.

We discussed the function of each language tool as we identified them, just as we had done in paragraphs one, two, and three. For example, I drew students’ attention to the use of the author’s choice to begin the paragraph with a marker of time (e.g., *throughout its history*) as a move to strengthen the author’s position that, given the U.S. government’s proclamation of itself as a *land of opportunity* for well over 200 years, undocumented immigrants must be welcomed.

When I directed students’ attention toward the evaluative language used in this paragraph, an unanticipated discussion emerged. The students easily identified wordings such

as, *land of opportunity*, *for all people*, *live freely*, *work hard*, and *secure life* as examples of positive evaluative language. In the same way, the students named the phrases *escape desperate poverty*, and *risk their lives* as examples of negative evaluative language. However, there was some disagreement about the phrase *work two or three jobs*.

One pair of students felt that *work two or three jobs* should definitely be underlined in orange as negative evaluative language giving the reason, “Nobody want to work two or three jobs. That’s not a good thing.” Others expressed that this wording should be coded in yellow as it supported the argument, “Immigrants are hard workers. They will work hard in America, and that is good.”

A few more students voiced their opinions on both the positive and negative assessment of this wording. I contributed to the debate by expressing that, as the author, I had intended the wording *work two or three jobs* as a positive portrayal of undocumented immigrants’ willingness to work hard to provide for their families.

I commented that I appreciated students’ efforts to identify and understand the language resources in the fourth paragraph and reemphasized that becoming proficient at academic reading and writing requires a tremendous amount of practice over time. I reiterated that the important goal was to continue to learn how language works as a tool to build meanings in academic texts in different genres.

These comments prompted one student to say, “You know my sister, she it at community college. She told me her teacher give her assignment to write like persuasive argument, you know, and she don’t know how to do it.” I thanked this student for this comment and added that it was my intention as the teacher that everyone in this class would leave high school knowing how to write an academic persuasive argument essay.

I stated that we would conclude today's lesson by reading the concluding paragraph. I asked students to restate the author's main objective in the conclusion of a persuasive argument essay, and one student said, "To repeat the arguments and make conclusion." I affirmed that response and elaborated that in the final paragraph the author reiterated, or restated, the same arguments with different words with the goal of persuading the reader to accept the stance that the author had communicated in the thesis statement in the introductory paragraph.

I reemphasized that the author used the same language resources in this last paragraph as had been used in the first four paragraphs. I assigned students the homework task of rereading this concluding paragraph and identifying the reiteration of "argument one, argument two, and argument 3" in the margin. I explained that because the author was reiterating arguments in this paragraph, no new ideas were introduced which should make the paragraph easier to understand.

Finally, I asked students to identify and be prepared to discuss the language resources that the author employed in this conclusion. For example, I suggested that they would notice the use of nominalizations, modals, and causal links as these were useful tools for both presenting and reiterating arguments.

In particular, I asked them to look for synonyms for other terms that had already been introduced and to find examples of the use of positive evaluative language. I added that the author's aim in this last paragraph was to "make sure the reader was persuaded" by writing a powerful conclusion.

I directed students to read along silently while I read the last paragraph aloud before the bell. I told students we would spend about ten minutes reviewing and discussing the language resources in the concluding paragraph the next day and that we would then begin writing a similar essay together.

6.2.7 The final lesson in the detailed reading stage

I opened the final review and discussion of the language resources in the pro-amnesty model persuasive text by inviting students to work with a partner to share the identification of the author's three main arguments as well as the language tools that the author had employed in the concluding paragraph. I provide the concluding paragraph below:

The act of granting amnesty to undocumented immigrants allows the U.S. to demonstrate its commitment to the ideals of freedom and prosperity for all hardworking people who want to participate fully in American life. Full participation in American life by undocumented immigrants will ensure a strong and steady workforce for many businesses and organizations. In turn, these dependable employees will strengthen the U.S. economy by generating more tax revenue and stimulating innovation. Finally, inviting undocumented immigrants to fully participate in American life symbolizes that the U.S. believes in its commitment to value, appreciate, and welcome all people who dream about a free, secure, and successful life.

Students shared their homework responses with a partner for a few minutes and then shared aloud. I asked them to identify the reiteration of the author's three main arguments. Students correctly identified sentences two and three as reiterating arguments one and two and the first and last sentences as reiterating argument three. I asked students why the author restated the third argument twice, in both the first and last sentence of the concluding paragraph, and a student responded, "Because that was most important argument."

I affirmed that response and elaborated that the author had introduced the argument that granting amnesty to undocumented immigrants would allow the U.S. government to demonstrate that *it is the country that it claims to be* both in the thesis statement and as the "most important" argument in the introductory paragraph. Thus, in an effort to strongly persuade readers to accept this stance, the author had chosen to start and end the conclusion with that argument.

I invited students to share out what they had noticed about the language tools the author had used in the concluding paragraph. I said, “Let’s begin with positive evaluative language. What wordings should be underlined in yellow?” Students took turns calling out responses such as, *commitment*, *hardworking*, *full participation in American life*, *strong and steady workforce*, and *value*, *appreciate*, and *welcome* among others.

One student said, “I have question about one word. What is *prosperity*?” I thanked this student for reminding me that I should have checked for any unfamiliar vocabulary and explained that *prosperity* was a noun that meant “having wealth and success.” I extended this elaboration by explaining that *prosperity* was connected to the verb *to prosper* that we had talked about in paragraph two in the sentence that stated that the steady labor force that undocumented immigrants provided allowed businesses to *prosper*, or “to grow successfully and do well financially.”

I further elaborated by stating, “People who live in *prosperity* are *prosperous*. They *prosper* because they have steady jobs and reliable incomes.” To support the connections among this group of words, I wrote these words at the Elmo and labeled them respectively as a noun, an adjective, and a verb. The students then pronounced the words after me.

Before continuing with the discussion of language resources in the concluding paragraph, I asked students if there were any other words about which they were not sure. One student called out, “What about *generating*?” I focused students’ attention on the sentence, “In turn, these dependable employees will strengthen the U.S. economy by generating more tax revenue and stimulating innovation,” and asked if someone could suggest a synonym for *generating* in this sentence. One student said, “Yeah, it means like making, like making grow bigger.”

I affirmed that response and elaborated that in this sentence, *generating* was a verb turned into a noun and that the verb *to generate* in this context meant “to bring about” or “to produce.” As there were no more questions about vocabulary, I asked students to share the author’s use of synonyms in the concluding paragraph, which I recorded at the Elmo as students called them out.

These synonyms included *commitment to the ideals of freedom and prosperity for all hardworking people* as a synonym for the “American promise” as well as *strong and steady workforce* and *these dependable employees* as synonyms for “this steady labor force” from paragraph two and “hardworking people” from the concluding paragraph.

Some students further recognized the use of nominalizations in the first, second, and last sentences and some had noticed the causal links *allows*, *ensure*, and *strengthen*. Many students had also noted the use of the modal *will* in the second and third sentences before these causal links.

I then turned students’ attention to the language resource of thematic progression since this language tool had been discussed when the seniors were not present. I asked if a ninth, tenth, or eleventh grader had noticed the use of thematic progression in this paragraph, but no one had and could not find it at this moment.

I directed students’ attention to the end of sentence one and the beginning of sentence two. I explained that the author had taken the idea at the end of sentence one of *people who want to participate fully in American life* and turned that idea into the starting point, or the focus of sentence two with *Full participation in American life . . .*” I reiterated that thematic progression was a very useful tool for writing in an organized way as it tightly linked, or connected, the idea introduced at the end of one sentence to the main idea of the next sentence.

I asked the underclassmen if one of them could share the example of thematic progression that we had discussed when reading paragraph three without the seniors. One student located this example and shared that *will pay the same taxes as everyone else* at the end of one sentence and *This increase in tax revenue . . .* at the beginning of the next sentence was the example of thematic progression that we had discussed. I thanked that student for this example and pointed it out at the Elmo for the seniors to see.

I stated that we had now concluded the reading and discussion of the many linguistic tools, or language resources, that the author had used to present the content, project an authoritative stance, and produce an organized text in the pro-amnesty model persuasive essay. I congratulated the students on a job well done. I stated that we would conduct a detailed reading of the “against” amnesty model persuasive essay as well, but that I had decided that the best way for students to learn more about how these language tools functioned to write was to actually write a persuasive argument essay on this same topic together.

6.3 SUMMARY OF DETAILED READING LESSONS

Throughout the lessons in the Detailed Reading stage the students were afforded the opportunity to closely examine the author’s use of language as a tool in the model text and to discuss the way that these linguistic resources function to construe meanings in a persuasive argument essay.

Specifically, students were guided to engage in an in depth exploration of the language resources that they can appropriate to successfully write a similar text in this genre. Teacher elaborations and visual representations were employed as instructional scaffolds to support the examination of the model text from a linguistic perspective.

For example, I used the Focus-Identify-Affirm-Elaborate and Focus-Propose-Affirm-Elaborate strategies (Rose & Martin, 2012) to both scaffold students' understanding of lexical items in context and the discussion of the linguistic resources in the model text. These strategies afforded me the opportunity to build up a metalanguage around the instances of language resources in meaningful contexts.

I chose the visual representations of a *linguistic tool box* and a *constellation of linguistic resources* to reinforce the notions of authorial choice in construing meanings in this genre. In addition, the repeated underlining and circling of the linguistic resources following the color-coding system served as a further visual scaffold to support the discussions around the patterns of language resources that unfold to construe meanings in this genre.

In short, these lessons in the Detailed Reading stage laid a foundation for the co-construction of a similar persuasive argument essay in the Joint Construction stage. I describe these lessons in Chapter 7.

7.0 THE JOINT CONSTRUCTION STAGE

7.1 PURPOSE OF THE JOINT CONSTRUCTION STAGE

The primary goal of the Joint Construction stage is to support students in successfully writing a similar text in the target genre. Nested within this goal, as is the case in all stages of the *Reading to Learn* framework, is the objective of providing students with “repeated experience of each language feature in different activities” (Rose & Martin, 2012, p. 214).

In the Joint Construction stage, the teacher continues to ask focus questions that build on the previous learning activities around the content and language features of the model text. The teacher continues to affirm students’ responses and to suggest alternative wordings throughout the co-construction of a similar text in the target genre.

In short, the purpose of the lessons in the Joint Construction stage is to scaffold the writing of a new text while following the schematic structure of the model text and discussing as many relevant language features as possible (Rose & Martin, 2012). In turn, this instructional scaffolding may support students in gaining control over the language resources of the target genre and serves as preparation for writing in the Individual Construction stage.

7.2 THE LESSONS IN THE JOINT CONSTRUCTION STAGE

7.2.1 The first lesson in the joint construction stage

To begin to prepare students for jointly constructing a pro-amnesty persuasive argument essay, I directed the students to work in six pre-determined groups. There were four groups of three and two groups of four. I organized students into these groups based on observations of their participation and engagement throughout the Preparing to Read and Detailed Reading lessons.

That is, I placed at least one or two students who had consistently and thoughtfully engaged in the preceding lessons into each group. Furthermore, I took students' attendance records into consideration in forming these groups so that each group was likely to have at least two students present each day. I made the decision to incorporate a mixture of group work tasks with teacher-facilitated tasks in order to provide more opportunities for all of the students to share and discuss throughout the Joint Construction lessons.

For the first task, I directed students to work in their groups to brainstorm potential arguments in favor of amnesty that we could use to develop a pro-amnesty persuasive argument essay. I suggested that students think of new arguments; that is, ones that were different from the arguments in the pro-amnesty model persuasive argument essay. I further suggested that they could refer to the texts we had read in the Building Field stage for ideas.

Students shared several potential arguments including *increase jobs*, *increase educational opportunities for undocumented teens*, *boost the economy*, *increase diversity*, *save the government money*, and *increase the military*.

Much discussion ensued in order to narrow down these potential arguments to the three that were ultimately selected: (1) increase educational opportunities for undocumented teens, (2) increase the U.S. military, and (3) improve cultural diversity in the U.S.

The argument that amnesty would increase educational opportunities for undocumented teens was introduced by Pilar, a Latina senior who was also a focal student. Pilar, the only Spanish-speaking student in the class, introduced her peers to the reality faced by many undocumented Latino teenagers in the U.S. educational system.

Pilar explained that although undocumented Latino teenagers were able to attend high school, most could not continue on to college due to the fact that they did not possess social security numbers and therefore could not apply for financial aid to pay for college. Thus, she argued, amnesty would allow these teenagers to continue their education.

The other students asked me to confirm the accuracy of what Pilar had said, and I confirmed that the situation Pilar had explained was indeed the reality for many Latino teens. I elaborated that, as many of the seniors already knew, completing the federal financial aid form, the FASFA, required a social security number. Without financial aid, college tuition was too expensive for most students in the United States.

I further elaborated that the U.S. Congress had been deliberating a bill called The Dream Act for quite a number of years; but as it was a *political hot potato*, it had not yet been adopted. I explained that because many politicians, as well as many Americans, believed that making The Dream Act a law would reward illegal immigration and encourage more undocumented immigrants to come to the United States, the congressional representatives could not come to an agreement to turn this proposed bill into a law.

In addition, I told students that the high school drop-out rate for Latino teens was nearly 50% and that many people believed that the hopelessness these students felt over not having an opportunity to go on to college contributed greatly to that drop-out rate. At that point, one student asked, “We are refugees, so we are legal, right?” to which many students answered, “Yes.”

I confirmed that refugee families were given permission to enter the United States by the U.S. government. Thus, these families had permanent refugee status and were legally present in the United States. I added that it was important to know that many Latino students were also legal residents of the U.S. and that millions were U.S. citizens *by virtue of their birth*, reminding students of the expression we had encountered in one of the texts during the Building Field lessons.

I further explained that public schools were prohibited by federal law (e.g., Plyler vs. Doe, 1982) from asking whether students or their families legally resided in the United States or not. I elaborated that many people made assumptions about Latino students and Latinos in general by automatically assuming that they were illegal.

I noted that the situation Pilar had described, however, was a reality for those Latino students who were undocumented, many of whom had come to the United States with their parents as young children. I commented that, after growing up in the United States, these young adults felt it was a great injustice that they could not pursue a college education and that I had been reading recently about their efforts to influence politicians to pass The Dream Act.

I asked the students whether they wanted to include the argument that granting amnesty would allow undocumented teens to access educational opportunities, and they collectively answered, “Yes.”

A second discussion emerged when Htoo, the ninth grade focal student from Myanmar, objected to the idea of giving amnesty to undocumented immigrants so that they could then join the U.S. military. He said, “You grant them to get killed. You know what I mean?” Another student replied that if undocumented immigrants were made legal and joined the military, then the U.S. government would let them become citizens. Another student agreed with that comment and added that legal immigrants could choose to go to the military, that they would not have to go and that perhaps they would not die in a war even if they joined the military.

I thanked the students for sharing their viewpoints and used this teachable moment to comment that we did not all have to agree with this argument in order to include it in our persuasive argument essay. In fact, I suggested that it would be unlikely that everyone would agree on whether granting amnesty so that immigrants could join the U.S. military was a good idea. I added that although I personally agreed with Htoo, our challenge would be to develop the arguments with which most of the class agreed.

I elaborated further that, in a high school social studies class or in college, students may be required to write an argument about a position with which they did not agree. I offered the example that it had been difficult for me to write the against-amnesty persuasive argument essay but that I had used the same language tools that had been useful in the for-amnesty essay to successfully develop against-amnesty arguments.

This discussion led to a slightly off-the-topic discussion of whether the U.S. government did or did not obligate young adults to go to the military. One senior boy explained that he had to sign a card when he turned 18 indicating that he was eligible for military service and had been told that he could not apply for financial aid unless he signed that card. I confirmed that this procedure was a regulation and that my own son had signed that card upon turning 18.

I emphasized that this regulation was viewed as a formality, or as paperwork that one had to complete but that was not necessarily important, and that no draft existed to obligate young adults to serve in the military. I assured students that under current governmental policy, which had been in place for about 40 years, young adults were not forced or obligated to join the U.S. military, that joining was a completely voluntary decision. In the end, since the decision to join the U.S. military was confirmed as a voluntary one and given the possibility that making this decision could lead to citizenship, the class decided to keep this argument as a reason to grant amnesty.

Most of the students agreed with the third proposed argument that granting amnesty would lead to increased cultural diversity in the United States. However, one student posed the question, “How can this increase diversity if U.S. is already diverse because undocumented immigrants are already here?” Another student replied that although millions of undocumented immigrants were here, “Maybe they don’t feel like they belong.”

Another student commented, “Maybe they will be deported so we don’t know if they can stay.” I intervened to ask whether students believed that they could come up with reasons that supported this argument. I emphasized that students would need to provide reasons for each of the proposed arguments in order to develop each argument in a separate paragraph.

A few students responded affirmatively that reasons for granting amnesty to increase cultural diversity could be proposed. I asked, “Such as?” and one student replied, “Then people can learn about other culture, like their food and what they believe, like their religion.” I affirmed that response and elaborated that this reason would be a good place to start to develop this third argument.

I asked the students if they could agree on this third argument, and they replied, “Yes,” without any objections. I thanked students for the interesting discussions about the potential arguments. I commented we would begin to jointly write a pro-amnesty persuasive argument essay using the three arguments students had agreed upon in these discussions during the next class period.

7.2.2 The second lesson in the joint construction stage

To frame the task of jointly constructing a persuasive argument essay, I explained that our purpose was to use the language tools that we had noticed and discussed in the model persuasive argument essay text to write a similar essay. I emphasized that our goal was to write this essay following the same structure as the model essay in order to present the arguments in an authoritative, academic, well-organized essay.

I elaborated further that we needed to create the three kinds of meanings as we wrote. That is, we needed to present the content, or our arguments and reasons for them, project an authoritative stance to convey our judgment, or attitude, about amnesty clearly, and link our ideas together in a logical, organized way.

I reiterated that different language tools functioned to accomplish, or build, each of these meanings and that our purpose was to *pick up these tools from our toolbox* and use them to write a good persuasive argument essay. I suggested that students could refer to the rubric (e.g., the Performance Criteria and Assessment Tool) as well as to the color-coded model text for support in choosing the language tools to use.

I directed students to move into their groups and asked them to take a moment to reiterate what the author does in a typical text in this genre in the introductory paragraph. After talking

briefly with one another, students responded that the author writes a thesis statement and then states the arguments that will be developed in the essay. I affirmed these responses and suggested the following:

Ok, let's start with the thesis statement. In this first sentence, we want an overall statement that clarifies that we are for amnesty. We want to use a strong modal and a causal link to show that amnesty will lead to something. Work in your groups to write a strong opening statement, a thesis statement. Let's start with *The U.S. government* and then finish that sentence.

Students worked in their groups to write potential thesis statements. While students worked in their groups, I opened a blank Word document which projected on to the classroom screen via the LCD projector. I told students that I would type the essay for everyone to see as we jointly wrote. I invited students to share the potential thesis statements.

Several groups offered similar suggestions, and we agreed on, "The U.S. government must provide amnesty for all undocumented immigrants in order to help them establish a better life," which I typed as the first sentence of the introductory paragraph. I affirmed this thesis statement as a good beginning and stated that we now needed to define *amnesty*. I stated:

On your rubric it says that an important thing for the writer of a persuasive argument essay to do is to define key terms. Let's assume that the reader may not know what amnesty is. Can you write a nice clear sentence to define briefly and clearly what amnesty is so that the reader is not confused? You can start with *Amnesty is* or *Amnesty means*. Don't make it long. Definitions are better when they're crisp and clear.

Soe, a senior and focal student from Myanmar, spoke for his group. He stated, "Giving permission to undocumented immigrants will lead them to . . . we stopped there." I thanked this group for their effort but noted that although their statement may be useful in introducing an argument, it had not defined what *amnesty* was.

Students from other groups called out suggestions such as, “Amnesty gives undocumented immigrants to live with peace and freedom.” I asked, “Can I say *gives to live*? How do you *give to live*?” Another student offered the sentence, “Amnesty allows undocumented immigrants to be legal,” and another contributed, “To work freely and legally in U.S.”

I typed, “Amnesty allows undocumented immigrants to live freely and legally in the U.S.” on the screen. I noted that this sentence was a good start although it still conveyed the result of amnesty rather than defining what the word meant. I asked the students whose decision it was to grant amnesty, and they replied, “The government.” I suggested that we could begin with that idea and retyped the sentence on the screen to read, “Amnesty is a governmental decision that allows undocumented immigrants to live freely and legally in the U.S.”

I asked students whether this sentence defined amnesty for a reader who may not know what it was, and they agreed that it did. I asked students what the author of a persuasive argument essay should do next in the introductory paragraph, and students replied, “Introduce arguments.” I asked which language tool was the best one for presenting arguments, and a few students answered, “Nominalization.” I framed this presentation of the first argument by stating:

Alright, so we’re going to turn an action into a thing or an act, states what it leads to and then evaluate it. So our first argument is educational growth. The idea is that if there is amnesty then young people who are currently undocumented will be able to continue to study after high school. So, we want to turn that idea into a nominalization and state the result with a causal link and then show our opinion, or stance, with the kind of positive evaluative language that we use.

I asked for suggestions for presenting the first argument, and the following exchange occurred:

Student	Propose	Allowing undocumented immigrants to become legal and stay in U.S. will increase education.
---------	---------	--

(I typed this sentence on the screen for students to read).

Teacher	Affirm	Ok, good start! I like how you chose to take the verb <i>allows</i> from the previous sentence and change it into a noun. Now it's a thing, or a noun.
	Focus	Ok, so you said <i>increase education</i> . I think you mean <i>educational</i> . . .?
Another Student	Propose	Growth.
Teacher	Focus	Educational growth? What do we call it when you have the chance to go to school?
Another Student	Propose	Opportunity.
Teacher	Focus	Ok, and mainly for whom would this be beneficial?
Student	Propose	Undocumented teens.

I commented that I would like to make a few suggestions for this sentence and retyped the sentence on the screen to read, “Allowing undocumented immigrants to stay legally in the U.S. will increase educational opportunities for undocumented teens” and then read the sentence aloud. I asked students whether this sentence was acceptable, and they agreed that it was.

I reiterated that we did not want to elaborate or develop this argument at this point, that we would do that in the second paragraph. I asked students to develop a sentence to present the second argument and paraphrased that argument as the opinion that if the U.S. government granted amnesty to undocumented immigrants, then the U.S. military would grow.

After working in their groups on a way to present the second argument, a student offered the sentence, “Granting undocumented immigrants amnesty will lead to growth in the U.S.

military,” which I typed on the screen. At that point, a student interjected, “What about security for nation?”

I commented that we could make the security of the nation part of the third paragraph in which we developed this second argument. I elaborated that we could build a chain of reasoning by arguing that having more people to volunteer for the military could lead to greater national security. I reiterated that we needed to keep the purpose of the introductory paragraph in mind, which was to create a thesis statement, define key terms, and present the arguments to be developed in the essay.

I asked students whether we could add a connector between the first and second arguments, and they suggested, “In addition.” Thus, I retyped the second argument sentence to read, “In addition, granting undocumented immigrants amnesty will lead to growth in the U.S. military.”

I noted that it was important to remember that we did not have to write a perfect essay. I commented that this essay was a first draft and that excellent academic writing required rewriting and rewriting. I suggested that students work in their groups to write a sentence to present the third argument.

A student suggested that we begin this sentence with *most importantly* since there had been a high level of agreement about including this argument. Another student suggested that we use *most significantly* to which the first student replied, “Importantly and significantly like same thing, you just don’t know.”

I responded that since these choices were synonyms, I liked the idea of using *most significantly* as it was a different choice than the one that had been used in the model persuasive

essay. I called on Yam to share the sentence from his group and the following exchange occurred, during which I typed and edited the third argument sentence on the screen:

Student	Propose	Most significantly, providing amnesty to undocumented immigrants to stay in U.S. from different countries will increase . . .
Teacher	Focus	Let's call <i>amnesty</i> something else this time. Can I call <i>amnesty</i> "providing permission?"
Student	Propose	Sure. Providing permission to undocumented immigrants from different countries will increase diversity in U.S.
Teacher	Focus	Wait, you didn't say provide permission for what?
Student	Propose	To stay.
Teacher	Focus	Up here we said <i>to stay legally</i> . Can we say something else? What's a synonym for <i>stay</i> ?
Another Student	Propose	Remain.
Teacher	Affirm	Ok, so we have "Most significantly, providing permission for undocumented immigrants from different countries to remain in the U.S. will increase . . ."
	Focus	We've used <i>increase</i> . Can we say something else?
Original Student	Propose	Improve diversity.

I thanked Yam for working through this sentence with me. I suggested that we add *legally* after *remain in the U.S.* and *cultural* before *diversity*. Thus, the third argument sentence was, "Most significantly, providing permission to undocumented immigrants from different countries to remain in the U.S. legally will improve cultural diversity. "

Thus, the introductory co-constructed introductory paragraph read:

The U.S. government must provide amnesty for all undocumented immigrants in order to help them establish a better life. Amnesty is a governmental decision that allows undocumented immigrants to live freely and legally in the U.S. Allowing undocumented immigrants to stay legally in the U.S. will increase educational opportunities for undocumented teens. In addition, granting undocumented immigrants amnesty will lead to growth in the U.S. military. Most significantly, providing permission to undocumented immigrants from different countries to remain in the U.S. legally will improve cultural diversity.

I complimented students on a wonderful effort to write a first draft on the introductory paragraph. At this point, Htoo raised his hand and said, “Mrs. Ramos, in the third paragraph when you develop diversity argument, you could introduce counter-argument. You could say like if there is more diversity there might be problems, you could say that for counter-argument.”

I thanked Htoo for this excellent suggestion and for reminding the class that it was important to include a counter-argument. Given that the co-construction of the introductory paragraph had taken the entire class period, I informed students that I would assign different groups to write a draft of the first two arguments in order for everyone to have some practice at using the language tools and to help us “think ahead” about how we wanted to develop the arguments.

I assigned half of the groups to write a draft of the first argument paragraph and half of the groups to write a draft of the second argument paragraph.

7.2.3 The third lesson in the joint construction stage

Students moved into their groups, and I invited them to take turns reading the argument paragraph that they had written for homework. I refocused students’ attention and stated that I would like to try to write all three argument paragraphs today.

I reminded students that we had a tight timeframe as we still needed to read and talk about the language tools in the against-amnesty model persuasive argument essay before students began to independently write their own persuasive argument essays either for or against amnesty.

I asked if anyone had a good sentence to begin the second argument paragraph, and a student offered, “Granting amnesty to undocumented teens will increase the percentage of young people who attend college,” which I typed and projected on the screen. Students expressed admiration for this sentence.

I acknowledged that this student had successfully used a nominalization, a modal, a causal link, and positive evaluative language to create this presentation of the second argument in a different way than it had been presented in the introductory paragraph. I asked if a student from one of the groups that had worked on this argument had an idea for a sentence that could follow this one.

A student suggested, “These hopeful high school graduates are forced into low-paying jobs,” which I typed. Pilar stated, “I think it’s important to say if they don’t have a social security number, they can’t go to college. A lot of people don’t know that.” I affirmed that suggestion and stated that it may be important to emphasize that, without amnesty, undocumented teens were unlikely to be able to borrow the money to attend college.

Soe suggested that after the first sentence, we could write, “Without amnesty, it’s not possible for these students to go to college,” which I typed as the second sentence. Another student interjected that we should write, *impossible* instead of *not possible*, which I changed on the screen. I asked if we could add an adjective before *students*, and a student suggested, “Intelligent.”

I suggested that I would like to include the idea that becoming legal allowed undocumented teens to apply for financial aid for college and added this idea to the sentence. We then read what we had written, and the students accepted the second sentence as, “Without amnesty, it’s impossible for these intelligent students to apply for financial aid to go to college.”

I asked students to read this second sentence followed by the third one, “These hopeful high school graduates are forced into low-paying jobs.” I “thought aloud” that it seemed to me that we needed to begin that third sentence with a connector that would indicate that *right now* the only option these students had was to work in low-paying jobs.

A student made the suggestion, “Currently.” I affirmed this choice and typed this adverb at the beginning of the third sentence. We reread the sentence with this change, and students agreed that “Currently, these hopeful high school graduates are forced into low-paying jobs,” was a good sentence. We reread the first three sentences aloud, and I asked for a suggestion for the next sentence.

A student said that he had a good sentence from his homework and read, “On the other hand, educated young people can open new businesses which will lead to economic growth,” which I typed on the screen. I thanked this student for the contribution and commented that it was a bit difficult to “plug in” sentences from different student’s homework paragraphs, but that we could make this sentence work.

I noted that I liked the way that this sentence helped us to build a chain of reasoning and verbalized this chain of reasoning as, “Granting amnesty would get undocumented teens into college, which would make them educated, which would lead them to open businesses, which would lead to economic growth.” I also commented that I liked the way this sentence contrasted

educated young people with those who were high school graduates who had been *forced into low-paying jobs*.

Roshan, a ninth grade focal student from Nepal, suggested that we could use the words *skillful and creative* in front of *educated*, which I typed on the screen. I affirmed Roshan's contribution of positive evaluative language and commented that we may want to place his idea after *educated young people* in order to suggest the importance of or result of being educated.

I retyped the sentence on the screen to read, "On the other hand, educated young people can develop the skills and creativity to open new businesses which will lead to economic growth." Students expressed satisfaction with this sentence, but I said that another thought had just occurred to me. I "thought aloud" that since we had emphasized the current situation for undocumented teens with the use of *without amnesty* and *currently*, perhaps we could be more persuasive if we added *with amnesty* to the beginning of this sentence.

I adjusted the sentence to read, "With amnesty, these educated young people can develop the skills and creativity to open new businesses which will lead to economic growth." I asked students to read the entire paragraph to determine whether it was acceptable before we moved on to the third paragraph. Students read the second paragraph from the screen:

Granting amnesty to undocumented teens will increase the percentage of young people who attend college. Without amnesty, it's impossible for these intelligent students to apply for financial aid to go to college. Currently, these hopeful high school graduates are forced into low-paying jobs. With amnesty, these educated young people can develop the skills and creativity to open new businesses, which will lead to economic growth.

The students were quite satisfied with this paragraph, and I remarked that students had done a great job using the language resources we had learned to present and develop the argument in this paragraph in an authoritative, academic, and organized way. We moved on to the third paragraph.

I invited students who had worked on the second argument paragraph for homework to offer a suggestion for starting the third paragraph. A student suggested, “Granting amnesty to undocumented immigrants will increase the U.S. military,” which I typed on the screen.

Another student stated, “Mrs. Ramos, in our first paragraph we already used *granting*. Can we say *providing*?” I affirmed, “Sure, it’s a good idea to vary our vocabulary choices,” and I retyped the sentence to read, “Providing amnesty to undocumented immigrants will increase the U.S. military.” Another student commented, “We already say *increase*. Maybe change to *strengthen*, and I made that change.

I stated, “Ok, that’s our second argument. What should we write next? How can we develop this argument?” A student offered a sentence that was hard to understand but focused on economic growth. I asked, “Do we want to put a sentence about economic growth here?” to which the students chorally replied, “No.” I asked, “Why not?” and a student answered, “This is about the military.”

Another student remarked that he had a sentence and read, “For example, undocumented immigrants will become legal and may start joining army instead of working for low salary,” which I typed on the screen. I asked, “Does that start to build our argument?” and students replied, “Yes.” I thanked this student for the suggestion and noted that I would change *army* to *military* since people could join the Army, Navy, Air Force, or Marines, which were all branches of the military.

I made this change and changed *salary* to *salaries* as well. I asked what students thought we should write next and proposed, “At some point, we want to say why the U.S. military needs more people. Is that important? You chose it as an argument for granting amnesty, so there has to be a reason why it’s important.”

Pilar commented that she had a reason and read from her paper, “In fact, everybody knows that every year thousands of American families lose many members in the war,” which I typed. I stated, “Ok, let’s try that. Instead of *everybody knows* can we try *it’s well-known* so that we sound more authoritative and impersonal?” Pilar agreed, and I made that change but noted that we may decide to move this sentence to a different part of the paragraph.

I invited students to consider the three sentences we had written so far by reading them from the screen:

Providing amnesty to undocumented immigrants will strengthen the U.S. military.
For example, undocumented immigrants will become legal and may start joining
the military instead of working for low salaries. In fact, it is well-known that
every year thousands of American families lose many members in the war.

I commented that I noticed some excellent use of language tools in this paragraph. I noted that I liked the use of a nominalization, a modal, a causal link and positive evaluative language in the first sentence. I stated that I particularly like the use of the modal *will* to convey the *high possibility* that undocumented immigrants will become legal and the use of the modal *may* to convey the *lower possibility* that they may join the military.

I commented that I also liked the choice of the synonym *working for low salaries* for *low-paying jobs* in the previous paragraph. Finally, I noted that the students had chosen two connectors, *for example* and *in fact*, which helped to link ideas between sentences. I wondered aloud, however, if we were perhaps missing a sentence between the second and third sentences.

I elaborated that the choice of *in fact* was useful for adding an example or supporting detail directly connected to the preceding sentence, but that the third sentence here did not extend the second one in this way. I offered a suggestion that resulted in the following exchange:

Teacher	Focus	So we have more undocumented immigrants who are legal starting to join the military. Could we start with <i>This stronger military force will . . .?</i>
---------	-------	--

Student	Propose	Increase security.
Teacher	Focus	What security?
Student	Propose	Of country.
Teacher	Affirm	Ok, good. So now we have, <i>This stronger military force will increase the country's security.</i>
	Focus	So, now we still have a problem with Pilar's sentence. Does her sentence connect to this idea?
Students		No.
Teacher	Focus	Can we put something in there that will help us connect to Pilar's idea?
Another Student	Propose	(Talks about tragedy of 2001 and then proposes a sentence). "Since tragedy of 2001 happened, U.S. government has needed more military to protect nation, to provide security."

There were a few chuckles that suggested that some students felt this sentence would not work. I thanked Tika, a senior focal student from Nepal, for making this suggestion and expressed that I thought this sentence might connect the ideas between sentence three and Pilar's sentence.

I paraphrased the logical connection by stating that one student had suggested that a bigger military force would increase the security of the nation, then Tika had given a reason why the U.S. would need more security, and finally Pilar linked back to the idea of the need for a larger military by adding a statistic that suggested that the U.S. military was losing personnel due to its involvement in wars.

I reminded students that this joint writing exercise was a practice activity and that we were writing what would be considered a first draft, which did not have to be perfect. I inserted Tika's sentence, changing *happened* to *occurred* and ending the sentence after *nation*. I stated

that I had made two small changes and invited students to read paragraph three, with the insertion of the two new sentences, from the screen:

Providing amnesty to undocumented immigrants will strengthen the U.S. military. For example, undocumented immigrants will become legal and may start joining the military instead of working for low salaries. This stronger military force will increase the country's security. Since the tragedy of 2001 occurred, the U.S. government has needed more military to protect the nation. In fact, it is well-known that every year thousands of American families lose many members in war.

After rereading the paragraph, students agreed that the additional sentences had improved the development of the argument. At this point, I stated that I wanted students to work in their groups to develop and then suggest a good concluding sentence to this paragraph.

However, Pilar stated that she wanted to make a comment and expressed that American people might not trust undocumented immigrants in the military. She said, "You know how there are stereotypes? It's bad but some people might think that. Maybe they don't trust them." Asha interjected that she had worked on this paragraph for homework and had a sentence about this idea to share. I invited her to read her sentence.

Asha read, "Many Americans don't believe it's necessary for the U.S. armed forces to be infiltrated by illegal immigrants." I commented that it was apparent that Asha had taken her homework seriously and had done some background research on the topic of undocumented immigrants in the U.S. military.

I stated, "OK, but with amnesty, they won't be illegal, they'll be legal. You are introducing a counter-argument, so you have to refute it. Did you refute it? Asha replied, "Yes," and continued, "I wrote *on the contrary, undocumented immigrants are willing to defend this country when many U.S. citizens and green card holders aren't willing to do this.*"

I commended Asha on her effort to include and refute a counter-argument and asked students if they agreed that the end of this paragraph was a good place for a counter-argument. Students agreed that it was. I stated that, in that case, I wanted everyone to take a few minutes to work in their groups to generate a few other counter-argument possibilities. I stated that groups would read the counter-argument ideas before the bell and that we would collectively select one.

After a few minutes, three groups had completed a draft of a counter-argument, which students shared verbally. Students listened to each counter-argument and voted on one that linked back to the notion of the country's security which had already been introduced in this paragraph. Thus, I added the "winning" counter-argument to the paragraph on the screen:

Providing amnesty to undocumented immigrants will strengthen the U.S. military. For example, undocumented immigrants will become legal and may start joining the military instead of working for low salaries. This stronger military force will increase the country's security. Since the tragedy of 2001 occurred, the U.S. government has needed more military to protect the nation. In fact, it is well-known that every year thousands of American families lose many members in war. Some people state that allowing undocumented immigrants to join the military will decrease the security of the country. In reality, undocumented immigrants who are granted amnesty will serve the nation that they live in.

I thanked students for their excellent work and reiterated that I would copy these first three paragraphs for everyone tomorrow so that students could develop the third argument paragraph and the concluding paragraph over the weekend as we would begin reading the against-amnesty essay the next day.

7.3 FOCAL STUDENT EXEMPLARS FROM THE JOINT CONSTRUCTION STAGE

In this final section of this chapter, I include exemplars from two focal students' independent writing of the third argument paragraph and concluding paragraph of the pro-amnesty essay that we had begun in class through co-construction activities.

These exemplars are illustrative of these students' efforts to appropriate some of the linguistic resources that they had noticed, discussed, and practiced during the Detailed Reading and Joint Construction lessons. As well, these exemplars provide a glimpse into the challenge that adolescent English language learners (ELLs) face to develop control over the linguistic resources that function to construe meanings in school-based genres.

It is important to note that these writing samples were completed for homework. Not untypically, homework writing often represents "first draft" effort. I provide these exemplars in unedited form as they were written:

Written by Pilar:

It is important to get to know people from other cultures. Having knowledge about what other people think and believe will increase the acceptance and peace in the nation. Accepting others people's believes and thoughts will inspire other nations to be the same way. This will lead to a better world and relations between the nations around the world.

In conclusion, Amnesty must be granted in the U.S. in order to have a better education and a secure life and more cultural diversity. Amnesty can be the best desition that the government can make. This will create a better and more secure nation. How the pledge alligeance states "One nation under God, indivisible, for liberty and justece for all."

Written by Soe:

In America, there are about 12 millions undocumented immigrant from all over the world. At the same time many different cultures exist in America. Each culture willing to provide it's own special and irreplaceable contribution

to their understanding of America. Without mixturing culture and races America would not be nation that it is today.

Granting amnesty to undocumented immigrants will give opportunity to these young, intelligent people to attend college. In fact these strong people can join the military which will strength the U.S. security. Finally, having many different culture in America would make U.S. a strong nation.

These excerpts indicate that these students had begun to appropriate the use of nominalization, causal links, modality, and evaluative language in an effort to state and develop an argument authoritatively. These students also employed conjunctive links and referents in order to create a chain of reasoning and present arguments in an organized way. At the same time, the spelling and grammatical errors evident in these examples demonstrate that these two seniors have not nearly developed the advanced literacy skills necessary for writing in college.

7.4 SUMMARY OF THE JOINT CONSTRUCTION LESSONS

The lessons in the Joint Construction stage began with the negotiation and selection of three new pro-amnesty arguments. From there, the introductory paragraph and the first two argument paragraphs were jointly constructed with students making suggestions while I fulfilled a guiding role. This guiding role included taking students' spoken suggestions and reworking them by rephrasing or providing alternative expressions (Rose & Martin, 2012).

Throughout these lessons, I made explicit reference to the schematic structure of the model text as well as to the linguistic resources that function to construe the three overarching meanings (e.g., Presentation of Content, Projection of an Authoritative Stance, and Construction of an Organized Text) in the persuasive argument essay genre.

I scaffolded this instruction by the projection of the co-constructed text as it unfolded through interaction. I incorporated the Focus-Propose-Affirm-Elaborate strategy to facilitate this interaction and support students' thinking about their choices around the language tools selected for use in this joint writing task.

This high level of support resulted in the completion of an acceptable first draft of the first three paragraphs of a similar text in the target genre, which was the primary goal of the Joint Construction stage.

8.0 REVISITING DETAILED READING AND COMPLETING INDIVIDUAL CONSTRUCTION

This chapter describes the implementation of the last four lessons in the Detailed Reading stage and the students' individual writing of a persuasive essay.

After jointly constructing a pro-amnesty persuasive argument essay, I refocused students' attention on the Detailed Reading of the second model text, the model persuasive argument essay against amnesty. I included this second model text in the instructional intervention in order to reiterate the central notion that following the schematic structure and employing the language resources that functioned to create meanings in this genre would enable students to write in an academically successful way regardless of the topic.

Moreover, engaging students in another series of Detailed Reading lessons would highlight the contrast between the author's use of positive evaluative language to convey the author's stance and build arguments authoritatively in the first essay with the author's use of negative evaluative language to accomplish that same purpose in the second essay.

Finally, deconstructing a second model text would support students in preparing to write their own persuasive argument essays about amnesty in the Individual Construction stage, which followed this second round of Detailed Reading lessons.

Thus, I first describe the lessons that comprised the deconstruction of the model persuasive argument essay against amnesty in the section below. Following that section, I

describe the lessons of the Individual Construction stage, which were the final lessons in the *Reading to Learn* cycle.

8.1 DECONSTRUCTING THE MODEL TEXT AGAINST AMNESTY THROUGH DETAILED READING

I focused this second series of Detailed Reading lessons on the author's employment of the linguistic resources that functioned to construe the three meanings in the persuasive argument essay genre with less attention to meaning cues to support text comprehension. Instead, I asked students to ask if they had questions about the meanings of any words or phrases.

I made this decision based on the fact that students had explored the idea of amnesty in several lessons which had helped to build their background knowledge on this topic that would support text comprehension. In addition, with few instructional days remaining to complete the instructional intervention, I wanted to optimize students' engagement with the linguistic resources and their function in creating meanings in the persuasive argument essay genre.

8.1.1 The first lesson in deconstructing the second model text

To prepare students for reading, I stated that as the author of this second model text (see Appendix B), I followed the same schematic structure and used the same language tools to write another persuasive argument essay from a completely different viewpoint. I stressed that college students were likely to be asked to write or speak about either side of an issue or topic and that

the same language tools functioned to persuade a reader to accept the author's position no matter which position the author took.

I projected the second model text on the screen and described the schematic structure by pointing to each paragraph and restating its purpose. Then, I read the model persuasive essay against amnesty aloud while students read silently from their own copies. I provide this second model text below:

Illegal aliens must not be granted amnesty which will permit them to live, work, and stay permanently in the United States after breaking the law by entering the country illegally. First, giving illegal aliens permission to live and work in the U.S. will certainly result in an increase in the number of aliens who believe it's acceptable to cross the border illegally. Secondly, extending legal employment opportunities to illegal aliens robs U.S. citizens of jobs. Lastly, the economic burden that will be created by extending even more welfare benefits to these low-skilled workers if they are legalized represents an unjust hardship for hardworking U.S. citizen taxpayers.

Proponents of amnesty mistakenly believe that granting amnesty to more than 15 million illegal aliens will put an end to this tidal wave of illegal entry into the U.S. It should be obvious how absolutely unrealistic this claim is. Clearly, millions more illegal aliens will be inspired to sneak into the U.S. once they believe that doing so will eventually result in permission to stay! This perpetual promise of amnesty will encourage illegal aliens to continue to blatantly break the law. Respecting the law is the foundation of American life, and this illegal invasion must not be tolerated or encouraged through amnesty.

Unemployment rates in the U.S. are currently at their highest levels in decades. Ordinary citizens and policymakers who believe that allowing illegal aliens to work legally does not steal jobs from U.S. citizens are strongly mistaken. This ridiculous assumption can be countered with cold, hard facts. According to a prominent international business and economics correspondent, the estimate that there are approximately 11 million illegal workers in the U.S. is extremely low. This gigantic illegal workforce means that at least 11 million U.S. citizens don't have jobs while these illegal workers do! Legalization of these workers who are already criminals for sneaking into the U.S. without permission represents an attack on deserving yet unemployed U.S. workers.

The U.S. government, and thereby U.S. taxpayers, are already wasting billions of dollars to provide social services to the unknown millions of illegal aliens who are already here. This grossly unfair economic burden, which U.S. workers already shoulder, will increase dramatically by legalizing illegal aliens through amnesty. The injustice of amnesty will lead to disastrous results for the U.S. economy. These low-skilled, under-educated, non-English speaking illegal workers are sure to remain impoverished even if they were to hold "legal" jobs. Amnesty, therefore, means a rapid and never-ending escalation in the number of non-citizens who will automatically feel entitled to health insurance, welfare benefits, and even unemployment benefits

handed to them on a platter, courtesy of the U.S. government. Placing this financial burden on the backs of U.S. citizens is unthinkable.

The decision to grant amnesty to millions of illegal aliens represents an affront to the patriotic citizens of this country by their own government. The proclamation that breaking the law of the land by invading the U.S. in droves is no more serious than a traffic ticket sends the wrong message to millions of other potential lawbreakers just waiting for the chance to cross the border. In addition, waving a magic wand to turn these illegal aliens into legal ones is an insult to every unemployed U.S. citizen. These citizens have families to feed and must not be “shoved to the back of the job line” behind illegal aliens! Furthermore, the legalization of this alien workforce signifies that higher-earning U.S. taxpayers must dig deeper into their own pockets to provide welfare benefits to these undeserving workers. It is abundantly obvious that the solution to the illegal alien crisis is immediate deportation, not amnesty.

When I finished reading, one student declared, “Wow.” Another student stated, “This one seem stronger than other one,” to which many students voiced agreement.

I used this opportunity to explain that, as the author, I had purposefully written a powerful text against amnesty in order to emphasize the way that the same language tools I had used in the first essay also worked to strongly and authoritatively convey my stance in this essay. I cautioned students that persuasive texts must be read carefully because a reader could be easily convinced by the use of such powerful language. I elaborated that, from reading the pro-amnesty essay, we already knew that each argument in this against-amnesty essay could be refuted.

Htoo noted that I had not used too many synonyms for *illegal aliens* in this second model text. I replied that I had used a few synonyms for *illegal aliens* that would be evident through a close rereading but that I had mainly chosen to refer to undocumented immigrants as illegal aliens and asked students why they thought I made that choice. One student replied, “To make very negative,” and I affirmed that response.

I asked a student to reread the thesis statement aloud and asked them to identify the modal to which students chorally replied, “*Must*,” which we underlined in blue. I asked students why it was important for an author to use a strong modal in a thesis statement in a text in this

genre, and one student replied, “To tell how important it is.” Another responded, “To tell your opinion.” I affirmed those responses and elaborated, “So, using a strong modal is a way for the author to state his or her opinion without saying . . . what?” One student answered, “I think,” and another said, “I believe.”

We also noted and color coded the use of the modal *will* and the casual link *permit* in the thesis statement. Students identified the wordings *illegal aliens*, *breaking the law*, and *illegally* as examples of negative evaluative language, which we underlined in orange. I then asked students what the author’s purpose was in the next three sentences.

Students chorally responded, “Introduce arguments.” I asked, “Which language tool can I use to introduce the arguments?” and a few students replied, “Nominalization.” I affirmed that response and stated, “Let’s go one step further. Why am I choosing nominalizations to present arguments? What does this tool do for me as a writer?”

Asha volunteered that using a nominalization “helps a writer to say result of something.” I affirmed that response and elaborated, “Yes, using a nominalization helps me as a writer to turn an action into a thing and to state the result of that thing. Then, I can do . . . what?” Several students replied, “Judge it,” and I affirmed that response.

I asked a student to read the sentence that introduced the first argument, and the student read, “First, giving illegal aliens permission to live and work in the U.S. will certainly result in an increase in the number of aliens who believe it’s acceptable to cross the border illegally.” I asked students to state the function of the word *first*, and several students replied, “Connector.” I affirmed that response and elaborated that *first* functioned as an organizational tool. We labeled *first* as a sequence connector.

I asked students to identify the nominalization in this sentence, and several students chorally replied, “Giving illegal aliens permission to live and work in the U.S.” I affirmed that response, and we underlined this nominalization in purple. I reiterated that this nominalization expressed *the act* of giving illegal aliens permission to live and work in the United States and asked students for a synonym for this act. A few students replied, “Grant amnesty.”

Students then identified *result in an increase* as the causal link and *will* as the modal. I emphasized that the author’s choice of *will* conveyed more certainty than the choice of *may* or *might* about the possibility that this act of giving illegal aliens permission to stay in the United States would result in even more illegal aliens entering the United States.

Next, the students and I discussed the function of *certainly* in this sentence in the following exchange:

Teacher	Focus	How about <i>certainly</i> ? What kind of job is that doing here?
Student	Propose	That mean you’re sure.
Student	Propose	Make it more powerful.
Student	Propose	Isn’t that adverb?
Teacher	Affirm	Good, yes, mark it in red.
	Focus	More importantly, the purpose is . . .?
Student	Propose	Make your opinion strong.
Teacher	Affirm	Great, that’s right.

I invited a student to read the second argument sentence, “Secondly, extending legal employment opportunities to illegal aliens robs U.S. citizens of jobs.” I noted that the author had used the nominalization *extending legal employment opportunities to illegal aliens* to present the second argument, and we underlined this nominalization in purple. I asked students to identify a

synonym for this nominalization, and student answered, “Giving permission to work.” We underlined those synonyms in green.

I asked students to identify the causal link naming the result of the nominalization in the sentence of focus, and students replied, “Robs.” I affirmed that response and noted that *rob* was a strong word. I asked, “*Robs* means . . .?” and students replied, “Steal.” I used this opportunity to note that the author had chosen not to use a modal before *robs* in this sentence and elaborated the meaning behind this authorial choice:

Notice that there is no modal in this sentence. When there is no modal, that means the author is 100% certain what the result of this act will be. So, it sends a message to the reader of 100% sureness or certainty on the author’s part. Here, I didn’t even bother to put *will* because I’m real sure that letting illegal aliens work legally means that U.S. citizens will lose their jobs.

I invited a student to read the sentence introducing the third argument, “Lastly, the economic burden that will be created by extending even more welfare benefits to these low-skilled workers if they are legalized represents an unjust hardship for hardworking U.S. citizen taxpayers.”

Students identified *lastly* as a sequence connector, and I asked whether an author always had to use sequence connectors in the introductory paragraph of a persuasive argument essay. Students collectively replied, “No,” and I elaborated that an author chose the connectors that functioned to link ideas together within a paragraph and that the author could choose different connectors such as, *in addition* and *furthermore*.

I drew students’ attention to the use of a nominalization to present the third argument, and we underlined the entire nominalization in purple. Due to the structural complexity of this sentence, I restated it in commonsense terms. I explained that the author was stating that if the U.S. government made illegal aliens legal, then the government would have to give them even

more welfare benefits, which would create an economic burden that would be unfair to U.S. citizens who work hard and pay taxes.

I asked, “What’s a burden?” and a student replied, “Like a secret.” I affirmed that response noting that we had encountered that meaning of the word *burden* in an Edgar Allan Poe story in which the main character carried a *burden* in his heart but that *burden* had a different meaning in this context. I elaborated that in this case, *burden* referred to “something that one had to carry, or support, or sustain.” We engaged in the following exchange around this word:

Teacher	Focus	What are we really talking about here? What’s an <i>economic burden</i> ?
Student	Propose	It means like a lot of money you have to pay.
Teacher	Affirm	Yes, OK, an economic burden requires a lot of money.
	Elaborate	So, someone has to pay for the welfare benefits that these low-skilled workers will get if they’re legalized. Someone has to pay for this burden.
	Focus	Who will pay?
Student	Propose	Taxpayers.
Teacher	Focus	Which taxpayers?
Student	Propose	U.S. citizens.
Teacher	Affirm & Elaborate	Yes, hardworking U.S. citizens have to carry or pay for or sustain this economic burden that gets even bigger if the government makes illegal aliens legal.

I also noted that in this sentence the author tried to “paint U.S. taxpayers with a different color” by calling them *hardworking U.S. citizen taxpayers*. We underlined this positive evaluated language in yellow, and I invited students to consider the way these word choices differed from the word choices *illegal* and *low-skilled* that the author had used to describe undocumented immigrants in this paragraph.

Next, I focused students' attention on the verb *represents* and explained that this verb functioned as a relational process to define or state the meaning of the creation of this economic burden for U.S. taxpayers. I said, "We could replace *represents* in this sentence with *is* because the author is stating that this economic burden created by the need to give welfare benefits to illegal aliens if the government makes them legal *is*, or *represents*, an unjust hardship for U.S. taxpayers."

I reiterated that the verbs *to be* and *to have* as well as verbs such as, *represents* and *means* functioned as relational processes to define what something was or to attribute qualities to something. I asked students what an *unjust hardship* was, and students replied, "That's negative." I affirmed that response and probed, "What's a *hardship*? If something is a *hardship* for you, what is it?"

One student replied, "It's hard," and another said, "It's a burden." I affirmed that a *hardship* was a type of "burden" and a student stated, "*Burden* and *hardship* are synonyms." I affirmed that response, and we underlined those words in green. I asked about the meaning of the adjective *unjust*, and a student said, "Unfair."

I affirmed and elaborated, "Right, so it's a *not fair big burden* for U.S. taxpayers to have to pay for welfare benefits for these low-skilled workers." I continued, "And *low-skilled workers* is a synonym for . . .?" Students replied, "Illegal aliens," and we underlined those synonyms in green.

I concluded the lesson by asking students to take a few moments to use the color coding in this introductory paragraph to talk with a partner about the language tools the author had employed and the function, or purpose, of each tool. Students worked with their partners to hold this discussion in the remaining few minutes before the bell.

8.1.2 The second lesson in deconstructing the second model text

Before we continued with the deconstruction of the model persuasive argument essay against amnesty, I commended students for the way that they had noticed and discussed the language tools that the author had employed to convey a stance and present arguments in the introductory paragraph. I noted that we had been able to move fairly quickly through that paragraph which I recognized as a sign of their growing awareness of the way that these language tools functioned to allow the author to present knowledge, project an authoritative stance, and write an organized text.

I added that I would like to try to continue with this faster pace as we read and discussed the remaining paragraphs in this model essay and that I was confident that students would be able to employ the language tools to write their own persuasive argument essays the following week.

I asked the students to state the purpose of the second paragraph in this genre, and students replied, “Develop the first argument.” I invited a student to read the first sentence, “Proponents of amnesty mistakenly believe that granting amnesty to more than 15 million illegal aliens will put an end to this tidal wave of illegal entry into the U.S.” I checked whether students recalled the meaning of *proponents* by asking, “Which word means *the people who are for amnesty*?”

Students chorally responded, “Proponents.” I affirmed that response and elaborated that in this sentence the author conveyed the stance that although the proponents of amnesty believed that granting amnesty would stop this tremendous number of illegal aliens from entering the country, they were wrong.

Students did not know what a tidal wave was, and I explained it. I elaborated that the author chose *tidal wave* as a metaphor for the huge number of illegal aliens who just kept pouring into the United States like an enormous wall of water. I asked students to notice that the author was creating a very negative image while writing authoritatively and impersonally at the same time. To exemplify, I stated, “The author did *not* choose to write, *I think all the people who think illegal immigrants are going to stop coming if we grant amnesty are wrong, and you should think so, too.*” Instead, the author had used purposeful word choices to convey this idea to the reader in a more academic way. We underlined *tidal wave of illegal entry* in orange.

A student asked, “Is *15 million* negative language?” I answered that we could consider *more than 15 million illegal aliens* as negative evaluative language and reminded students that other estimates we had read of the number of illegal aliens in the United States had been much lower. I elaborated that this choice to state such a high number supported the author’s claim that there were just too many illegal aliens entering the United States. This statement led to a brief but interesting discussion.

Htoo asked, “But what if it’s not true? How can your writing be accurate if it’s not true?” I thanked Htoo for raising this question and explained that the fact that an author could make a claim that was not true was what made reading persuasive texts so challenging. I emphasized, “So, when you read persuasive texts, *your* job as the *reader* is to *question* the author’s evidence. Always. That’s your job.”

I asked students which verb the author had used to introduce what proponents of amnesty claimed in this sentence. One student answered, “Believe,” and another said, “That’s a mental process.” I affirmed those responses and reiterated that both mental and verbal processes

functioned to introduce other's voices into a persuasive argument essay. We drew a black box around *believe* to delineate it as a mental process.

A student asked, "How about *mistakenly*? Is it adverb?" I affirmed that it was, and we underlined *mistakenly* in red. I elaborated that by choosing this adverb, the author was able to authoritatively convey her stance by negatively evaluating what the proponents of amnesty believed. That is, the choice of *mistakenly* functioned to convey the author's opinion that these proponents of amnesty were wrong.

I asked students to recall what an author was doing when he or she introduced a belief or an idea that was opposite of what the author believed, and several students replied, "Counter-argument." I affirmed that response and noted that the choice of the adverb *mistakenly* also allowed the author to counter, or refute, this belief that illegal immigrants would stop coming if the government granted amnesty to those who were already in the United States.

In the next sentence, "It should be obvious how absolutely unrealistic this claim is," I asked students to explain what *this claim* referred to, and Pilar answered, "What the proponents believe." I affirmed that response and elaborated that the author was referring to the entire idea expressed in the first sentence that granting amnesty would put an end to the tidal wave of illegal immigrants coming into the United States. That is, the author was calling this whole idea *this claim*, and was referring back to the idea that had just been introduced in the first sentence.

I explained that this second sentence also served to set up the author to refute *this claim*, or this belief that illegal immigrants would stop coming if amnesty were granted. I asked students to name the other words in this sentence that functioned to convey the author's opinion about *this claim*, and one student said, "Obvious." Another said, "Absolutely unrealistic."

I invited a student to read the next sentence, “Clearly, millions more illegal aliens will be inspired to sneak into the U.S. once they believe that doing so will eventually result in permission to stay.” I explained in commonsense terms that in this sentence the reader had to infer, or figure out, that the author was now directly refuting the idea that granting amnesty would stop illegal aliens from coming to the United States. That is, the author was suggesting that granting amnesty would actually make many more illegal aliens want to enter the United States since they would believe that, sooner or later, they would also be permitted to stay.

A student asked, “Is *clearly* a connector?” and another student replied, “Yes, and adverb.” I asked, “What job is it doing?” and a student answered, “Like, *This is right*.” I affirmed that response and elaborated, “Yes, by choosing *clearly*, the author is saying, ‘Listen reader, you have to see that it’s perfectly clear that I’m right.’”

I asked students to identify the use of negative evaluative language in this sentence, and students responded, “Sneak into U.S.” Another student said, “And *millions more illegal aliens* because before we say 15 million was negative.” We underlined *clearly* in red and *millions more illegal aliens* and *sneak into* in orange.

I focused students’ attention on the next sentence, “This perpetual promise of amnesty will encourage illegal aliens to continue to blatantly break the law.” I pointed out that the author began this sentence with the noun phrase *this perpetual promise of amnesty* and that the word *this* provided a hint to the reader that the author was stating an idea that had already been introduced just like that author had done with *this claim* in the second sentence.

I asked whether students understood the word *perpetual*, and a student replied, “Perpetual is negative, right?” I answered that *perpetual* could be either positive or negative and gave the

example that *perpetual reading* was a positive idea because *perpetual* meant “never-ending, ongoing, or without stopping.” A student interjected, “Like perpetual profit is good.”

I affirmed that example and explained that in the current sentence the author used the idea of *this perpetual promise of amnesty* to link to the claim in the previous sentence that illegal aliens would never stop sneaking into the United States because they would believe that the government would keep granting amnesty over and over again if the government made a decision to give 15 million currently illegal aliens permission to stay in the United States. That is, the author’s stance was that illegal aliens would view *amnesty* as a “perpetual, never-ending, ongoing promise” which would simply encourage more illegal aliens to come to the United States.

I focused students’ attention on another language resource the author had employed in this sentence by asking, “What else did the author do here? What do we call it when the author takes the idea presented in one sentence and makes it the starting point, or focus, of the next sentence? What do we call that?” Students began to look through their binders, and Asha answered, “Thematic progression.”

I thanked Asha for locating the answer and elaborated:

So, *thematic progression* is a fancy way of saying *take the idea you ended one sentence with and “progress” or continue with that same idea by making it the focus or starting point of the next sentence*. What thematic progression does is it allows the author to make a beautifully organized piece of writing. You can’t use it in every sentence, but when you use thematic progression in a paragraph, you are doing an important job as far as organizing your writing.

I refocused students’ attention on the current sentence and asked whether *perpetual* was negative or positive in this context, and students replied, “Negative.” I asked what other

negative language the author employed in this sentence, and one student replied, “Illegal aliens.” Another answered, “Break the law.”

Another student asked, “What means *blatantly*?” and I explained that in this sentence *blatantly* meant “rudely and on purpose without caring about the law.” I elaborated further that the author was claiming that the never-ending promise of amnesty would make illegal aliens feel like they could just disregard the law and blatantly keep breaking it “right in the government’s face.” A student said, “That’s negative,” and we underlined the negative evaluative language in this sentence in orange.

Another student suggested that we should also underline *will* as a modal and circle *encourage* as a causal link in brown. I affirmed that suggestion and reiterated that the author used these language tools to convey the stance that the perpetual promise of amnesty was very likely to result in more and more illegal aliens entering the United States, which the author had judged to be very negative.

I then invited a student to read the last sentence in the second paragraph, “Respecting the law is the foundation of American life, and this illegal invasion must not be tolerated or encouraged through amnesty.” I pointed out that this sentence began with a nominalization but that the author had not chosen a causal link to state the result of this act. Instead, the author had chosen to use the relational process *is* to define *the act of respecting the law* as “the foundation, or the basis, of life in America.”

I elaborated further that the author was trying to convince the reader that this respect for the law at the heart of American life was the reason that the government must not tolerate, or put up with, illegal aliens invading the United States and must not encourage this invasion by granting amnesty. I asked students how we should color code the language tools in this sentence.

Students decided that we should underline *respecting the law* and *foundation of American life* in yellow as examples of positive evaluative language. Students indicated that *illegal invasion* should be underlined in orange as negative evaluative language and suggested that we underline *is* in brown as a relational process and *must* in blue as a modal. I added that we should also underline *respecting the law* in purple as a nominalization.

I focused students' attention on the third paragraph. I noted that in this paragraph the author introduced the second argument named in the introduction which was that granting illegal aliens the permission to work legally in the United States would result in a loss of jobs for U.S. citizens.

I invited a student to read the first sentence, "Unemployment rates in the U.S. are currently at their highest level in decades." I asked, "Is that the second argument?" and students replied, "No." I noted that the author had chosen to begin this paragraph with a fact. I reminded students that Htoo had raised a very important point about how a reader knows if an author's evidence is true.

I reiterated that, as readers, students were responsible for questioning an author's evidence, especially in persuasive texts. Pilar stated, "It's like evaluating an advertisement." I thanked Pilar for that analogy and elaborated that readers needed to use the same kind of critical thinking strategies when reading persuasive texts as consumers used when considering whether to believe advertisements, which were created to persuade or convince consumers to buy products or services.

I refocused students' attention on the first sentence of the third paragraph and asked, "Can this fact be checked? Can we find out if unemployment rates in the U.S. are higher than

they have been for decades?” and students replied, “Yes.” I affirmed that this fact could be checked but cautioned students further about the challenge of reading persuasive texts.

I explained that although it was true that unemployment rates were higher than they had been in many years, this fact did not necessarily have anything to do with illegal immigration. I emphasized that in this essay, however, the author was trying to convince readers that a connection existed between unemployment rates and illegal immigration.

I turned students’ attention to the next sentence and read aloud, “Ordinary citizens and policymakers who believe that allowing illegal aliens to work legally does not steal jobs from U.S. citizens are strongly mistaken.” I asked, “What is the author doing in this sentence?” and a student replied, “Introduce counter-argument.”

I affirmed that response and elaborated, “Yes, the author is stating that there are lots of people, regular people and politicians who make laws, who think that illegal aliens are not stealing jobs from U.S. citizens, but they are wrong.” I pointed out that all of the words up to *are* could be considered as one giant noun. I explained that the author was stating that *All the people who have this belief are . . .?*” and students replied, “Wrong,” and “Mistaken.”

I asked, “Did the author use a causal link to indicate the result of this belief?” and a student responded, “No, relational process.” I affirmed that the author had chosen the relational process *are* to attribute this belief that illegal aliens did not steal jobs from U.S. citizens as a wrong or mistaken belief. We underlined *are* in brown.

Another student commented, “*Believe* is black.” I affirmed that *believe* was a mental process that functioned to introduce the voices of ordinary people and lawmakers in this sentence, and we drew a black box around *believe*. At this point, Htoo asked, “If you don’t have idea to fight against counter-argument, you don’t put it, right?”

I responded, “Correct. If you don’t have a way to fight against the counter-argument, you don’t need to introduce it.” I continued, “What’s the academic word for *fight against* a counter-argument?” and a student replied, “Refute.” I said, “Yes, an author needs to refute a counter-argument so let’s see if the author does that here.”

I asked a student to read the next sentence, “This ridiculous assumption can be countered with cold, hard facts.” I asked, “Does that refute the counter-argument?” and students chorally replied, “No.” I agreed and elaborated that with this sentence the author was preparing to refute the counter-argument with strong facts. I asked, “What does *this ridiculous assumption* refer to in this sentence?” and a student answered, “All that nominalization.”

I affirmed that response by stating:

Right, so instead of repeating, *the belief that illegal workers are not taking jobs from U.S. citizens*, the author is calling that whole belief *this ridiculous assumption*. An assumption is something that you assume or believe to be true. It’s a noun. It’s like saying *this ridiculous belief* or *this ridiculous idea*. The author is using *this ridiculous assumption* to refer to the whole idea expressed in the previous sentence.

We underlined *this ridiculous assumption* in orange as negative evaluative language.

I commented that as just a few minutes remained in class, I would like to quickly read the next two sentences in which the author offered the *cold, hard facts* that would refute the counter-argument. I read as students read silently, “According to a prominent international business and economic correspondent, the estimate that there are approximately 11 million illegal workers in the U.S. is extremely low. This gigantic illegal workforce means that at least 11 million U.S. citizens don’t have jobs while these illegal workers do.”

I restated these sentences in every day language by explaining that the author was claiming that since there were more than 11 million illegal workers in the United States that fact

meant that there were 11 million U.S. citizens who did not have jobs. That is, these 11 million illegal workers were doing jobs that 11 million U.S. citizens could be doing.

I asked, “Did the author include a source for this fact?” and a student replied, “Yes, like important businessman but we don’t know name.” I asked, “As the reader, can you be sure that these 11 million illegal workers are taking jobs from 11 million U.S. citizens?” and a student stated, “No, because maybe the U.S. citizens they don’t want those jobs.”

I asked, “What synonym did the author use for *these 11 million illegal workers*?” and a student answered, “This gigantic illegal workforce.” I affirmed that response, and a student said, “Underline in green and orange,” which we did. Another student said, “*11 million U.S. citizens don’t have jobs* is negative, too.” I affirmed that comment, and we underlined that phrase in orange as well. Finally, I asked which kind of verbs the author had used in these two sentences, and a few students answered, “Relational processes.” We underlined *is*, *are*, and *means* in brown.

Before the bell rang, I assigned students an “Authoritatively Speaking!” (see Appendix T) homework and stated that we would read the last sentence of the third paragraph as well as the fourth paragraph the next day.

8.1.3 The third lesson in deconstructing the second model text

To begin the this lesson, I invited students to work with a partner to share their efforts at turning personal statements into more authoritative ones, which students had completed for homework on the worksheet entitled “Authoritatively Speaking!”

The explanation and examples about converting personal, non-authoritative language into impersonal, authoritative language on the front side of this task are included as Figure 12 below:

“Authoritatively Speaking!”



We are learning that writers of academically-valued persuasive argument essays must use an “authoritative voice.” This authoritative voice must be convincing yet impersonal. An *impersonal stance allows a writer to convey his/her point of view on an issue in a reasoned, authoritative way.*

Look at these examples that show how to turn a “personal statement” into a more authoritative, impersonal one!

Personal and not authoritative:

“I think that advertisements may lead teens to buy products that they don’t need.”

More impersonal and somewhat authoritative:

“It seems clear that advertisements may lead teens to buy products that they don’t need.”

Even more impersonal and authoritative:

“Clearly, advertisements may lead teens to buy products that they don’t need.”

Impersonal and authoritative:

“Advertisements lead teens to buy products that they don’t need.”

Figure12. Instructional Task for Practicing Authoritative Language Use

On the back side of this instructional task, students were directed to read a personal statement and to rewrite that same statement in a more impersonal, authoritative style. I present a few examples for focal students’ responses on this assignment:

Personal statement provided:

The way I see it, students should be allowed to check in with their teacher first and then use the bathroom.

Roshan’s rewritten statement:

Asking teacher permission to use the bathroom will not lead the student to get

in trouble.

Personal statement provided:

It seems clear to me that the U.S. shouldn't let so many immigrants come here.

Asha's rewritten statement:

The U.S. must tighten control over immigration.

Personal statement provided:

Some people think that companies shouldn't be allowed to advertise on the Internet.

Tika's rewritten statement:

Many people believe that ads must not be tolerate in internet.

These examples, which were similar to examples written by the class at large, indicated that some students were able to appropriate the language tools of focus (e.g., nominalization, modals of high possibility and necessity, mental processes, causal links) to convert spoken-style language into more authoritative, academic-style language.

After students had an opportunity to share their responses on the authoritative writing task with a partner, I directed students to silently reread the third paragraph of the model persuasive essay against amnesty.

I invited a student to read the last sentence aloud, "Legalization of these workers who are already criminals for sneaking into the U.S. without permission represents an attack on deserving yet unemployed U.S. workers." I noted that the author had employed a great deal of negative evaluative language in this sentence and asked students to name those words. Students called out, *criminals*, *sneaking in*, *without permission*, and *attack* as examples of negative evaluative language, which we underlined in orange.

I noted that the author was linking back to the idea of an *illegal invasion* in the second paragraph by choosing the word *attack*. I elaborated that the author was suggesting that illegal aliens were a huge group of criminals, a tidal wave of criminals, who were attacking or invading the United States. A student asked, “Tidal wave is like synonym for this gigantic illegal workforce?” and I affirmed that we could consider those phrases as referring to the same idea.

I asked students to identify the nominalization in the last sentence of the third paragraph, and several students read from the text up to the verb *represents*. I affirmed that these words were a nominalization which referred to *the act of legalizing all of the illegal aliens who had entered the United States without permission*. I asked what the function of *represents* was in this sentence. Some students responded, “Relational process” while others responded, “Causal link.”

I explained that in this sentence *represents* was a relational process. I elaborated that it could not be considered a causal link because the author was not stating that the act of legalizing illegal aliens *caused* or *resulted* in an attack on U.S. workers but that this act *was* an attack on U.S. workers. I reread the sentence with *is* rather than *represents* and reiterated that *represents* functioned in this sentence to define the legalization of illegal workers as an attack on unemployed U.S. workers who deserved to have jobs.

We underlined *legalization of these workers who are already criminals for sneaking into the U.S. without permission* in purple as a nominalization and *represents* in brown as a relational process. I focused students’ attention on the fourth paragraph.

I asked students to reiterate the purpose of the fourth paragraph, and several students replied, “Explain third argument.” I restated the author’s argument as the idea that the U.S. government and U.S. taxpayers were already spending a lot of money to pay for social services for illegal aliens. I explained that the author argued that if the government made these illegal

aliens legal through amnesty, they would still not be citizens but they would still be poor and more of them would come forward to demand health and welfare benefits. The author argued that U.S. taxpayers would be the ones to pay for these benefits, which represented an unfair economic burden to these U.S. taxpayers.

At this point, Htoo asked, “How do they get welfare benefits without social security number?” I thanked Htoo for this good question and for reminding the class again that it was critical for a reader to question an author’s argument or claims in a persuasive text. I elaborated that the media often promoted the idea that undocumented immigrants received welfare benefits which U.S. taxpayers paid for and that many people believed this idea to be true.

I shared a brief anecdote about a time a few years ago that I had helped a Latina young woman, who was a U.S. citizen because she had been born here, to fill out her family’s welfare application. I related that we had to list all of the people who lived in the household along with their social security numbers in order to complete the application, but that we could not finish the application as some people in that family may not have been legal and did not have social security numbers.

I emphasized that in this essay, the author recognized that including this argument that billions of dollars were being wasted to care for illegal aliens was a powerful, persuasive use of language that was likely to convince many readers who did not question the author’s claims. I asked students to reiterate the purpose of writing a persuasive argument essay, and a student answered, “To convince reader to see author’s side.”

I told students that, rather than going through this paragraph sentence by sentence as a whole class today, I wanted them to work with a partner to identify and color code the language

tools employed by the author to develop this third and final argument. I gave students 15 minutes to complete this task together while I circulated among them.

During this pair work, a few students asked me questions or offered comments. For example, Htoo said that in the last part of the second sentence (e.g., *will increase dramatically by legalizing illegal aliens through amnesty*), the author could have chosen to write *exponentially* or “something like that” instead of *dramatically*. I commended Htoo for his knowledge of this important academic word from math class and noted that *exponentially* would have been an excellent choice in this sentence.

Another student asked about the use of *shoulder* in the first part of this same sentence which read, “This grossly unfair economic burden, which U.S. workers already *shoulder*.” I explained that in this context *shoulder* was being used as a verb that meant “to hold up a heavy weight.” I explained that in this case, that *heavy weight* was the economic burden which had been created by all of the money that was needed to pay for social services for undocumented immigrants.

I invited students to share out the language tools that they had identified and color coded in this paragraph. One student commented that there was “a lot of orange.” I affirmed that comment and added that this extensive use of negative evaluative language did not happen by accident. I emphasized that this *sprinkling of negative words throughout the paragraph* represented a purposeful choice on the author’s part to create a very negative image of the financial burden that had been placed on the shoulders of U.S. citizens in order to provide welfare and other social services to undocumented immigrants.

Students identified *wasting billions of dollars*, *unknown millions of illegal aliens*, *unfair economic burden*, *injustice*, and *disastrous* as negative evaluative language in the first few

sentences. *Low-skilled, under-educated, and non-English speaking illegal workers* were coded in orange as negative evaluative language in the next sentence.

Other examples of negative evaluative language included, *never-ending escalation, financial burden, and unthinkable*. I asked about other language tools that the students had noticed and identified in this paragraph.

A student offered that *will lead to* represented the use of a modal and a causal link. Another student added that *will increase* was also an example of a modal and a causal link. I affirmed these responses and elaborated that the author was working to build a chain of reasoning about the way that granting amnesty to illegal aliens would negatively affect U.S. workers and the U.S. economy.

I emphasized that in this paragraph the author had placed the focus back on amnesty by stating that *the injustice of amnesty* would have disastrous results for the U.S. economy. That is, amnesty would lead to a never-ending increase, or escalation, in the number of illegal aliens who believed that they deserved to have welfare benefits and health insurance provided to them, or handed to them on a platter, by the U.S. government. I asked what *a platter* was, and a student said, “Like a tray.”

To support students in visualize the meaning of this sentence, I pretended to *serve a platter full of benefits* and explained that the author was trying to get readers to visualize the U.S. government *handing out* these benefits *like free treats on a tray* to millions of illegal aliens.

I asked students to continue naming other language resources employed by the author in this paragraph, and students identified *is, are, and means* as relational processes. One student said, “I think *automatically* is adverb,” and I confirmed that it was. Another student named *placing this financial burden on the backs of U.S. citizens* as a nominalization. I affirmed that

identification of this language tool. I elaborated that the author defined this act of making U.S. citizens pay so much money for social services for illegal aliens, of making U.S. citizens responsible for this financial burden, as an *unthinkable* idea, or one that should never be considered or occur.

I asked students if there were any words that they wanted to clarify in this paragraph, and one student said, “Escalation.” I asked for a synonym for this word, and a student said, “Increase.” I affirmed that response and said that an *escalation* was a noun that meant “an increase.”

Another student called out, “Impoverished,” and I asked if someone could give the meaning. A student said, “Poor.” I affirmed that response and asked which word students could “see” inside of *impoverished*, and a student said, “Poverty.” I affirmed that *impoverished* was an adjective that was connected to the noun *poverty* as “*impoverished*” meant “living in a state of poverty or in a poor state.”

I commended students for their excellent work in noticing and discussing the language tools that the author had used in this third paragraph to develop the third argument in an authoritative way that conveyed a strongly negative stance toward granting amnesty to illegal aliens.

I asked students to read the concluding paragraph of the model persuasive argument essay against amnesty for homework and to circle the author’s reiteration of three arguments that had been developed in the body paragraphs. I explained that the next day, I wanted students to complete a jigsaw activity with a text that outlined the “pros and cons” of several issues related to amnesty. I stated that reading this text in groups would serve to bring back to mind some of

the background information students had learned about amnesty in order to prepare to write their own persuasive argument essays the following week.

To end the lesson, I noted that I was confident that students were ready to practice using these language tools to write their own persuasive argument essays about amnesty. I stated that students would have four class periods during the following week to work on that writing. A student asked, “Can we use dictionary and thesaurus?” and I replied that they could. Another asked, “Can we ask you questions?” and I assured them that I would be available to answer questions while they wrote.

8.1.4 The final lesson before individual construction

During the final lesson before beginning the Individual Construction stage, students completed a jigsaw-type activity to work in groups to read an assigned section of a text (see Appendix U) briefly outlining “pro and con” viewpoints of several issues related to amnesty.

This text, downloaded from the Internet (<http://www.immigration.procon.org>), presented succinct “pro and con” points of view on the topics *Using the Term Illegal Alien, Amnesty, Deportation, Terrorist Threat, and Economic Burden*. Each of these mini-texts included the original sources from which the information presented had been obtained.

I divided students into five groups and assigned one section to each group. Each group was assigned the tasks of reading and discussing the “pro and con” perspectives of the particular topic assigned to that group and preparing a brief summary of each side in their own words to share with the class.

Although the text sections assigned to each group were brief, students struggled to comprehend the “pro and con” perspectives presented around each topic on their own. I include the “pro and con” text about the topic of deportation in Figure 13 below:

“Pro” Deportation	“Con” Deportation
<p>Deporting aliens is as easy as one, two, three. The next time you hear U.S. President George W. Bush or U.S. Secretary of Homeland Security Michael Chertoff say how impossible immigration enforcement is, remember this simple formula: one, go to where you know aliens are; two, arrest them; three, deport them. Don’t bother asking where aliens hang out. The better question is where aren’t they hanging out. Go to a bus stop, a taco truck, a convenience store, the post office or an auto repair shop. No need to round them all up at once. Just arrest one or two every day at different locations around town and the message will soon get out.</p> <p>Joe Guzzardi English teacher at Lodi Adult School in California “Deportation: As Easy As One, Two, Three,” VDare.com August 19, 2007</p>	<p>I have listened to and understand the concerns of those who simply advocate sealing our borders and rounding up and deporting undocumented workers currently in residence here. But that’s easier said than done . . . I have yet to hear a single proponent of this point of view offer one realistic proposal for locating, apprehending, and returning to their countries of origin over 11 million people. How do we do that? . . . It would take 200,000 buses extending along a 1,700 mile long line to deport 11 million people. That’s assuming we had the resources to locate and apprehend all 11 million, or even half that number, which we don’t have and, we all know, won’t ever have.</p> <p>John McCain U.S. Senator (R-AZ) Statement on the Senate floor March 30, 2006</p>

Figure 13. Example Pro and Con Text Used in Jigsaw Activity

In response to students’ concerns that these texts were difficult to understand and summarize, I asked students to focus on *the gist* of each side of these issues and to prepare a sentence or two that summarized *this main idea* of each side of the issue to share with the class. I noted that I would work with each group to answer questions while students read and discussed each topic.

The students spent approximately thirty minutes reading, discussing, and preparing brief summary statements of the “pro and con” perspectives of each topic while I supported each

group by answering vocabulary questions and rephrasing concepts in everyday language that students could understand. With this support and through rereading the mini-texts in their groups, students were able to prepare brief explanations of each topic to share with the class.

In the remaining class time available, each group chose two students to share the group's brief explanation about the "pro" and "con" perspectives of each issue. For example, the student representatives from the *Deportation* group shared that the text stating the "pro" side was written by a person who thought undocumented immigrants should be deported.

The student delivering the "pro" perspective summarized that author of this text was an English teacher who thought that deportation was a good idea. He explained that this man's viewpoint was that the government or the police should look for illegal aliens everywhere and arrest them and send them back to their country. He concluded by stating, "If they do this maybe the undocumented immigrants will stop coming to U.S."

The student delivering the "con" side of the deportation issue noted that this text was harder to understand. He identified the source as a U.S. Senator from Arizona. He explained that this senator did not think deportation was a good idea because it would be too hard to find 11 million undocumented immigrants. He elaborated that the government would need "a lot of money and people" to deport 11 million people and concluded by stating that this senator said "Everybody know the government can't do that."

After each group shared, I thanked students for summarizing these "pro and con" points of view and asked them to place these texts in their binders to refer to the following week during the writing of their "pro or con" persuasive argument essays about amnesty.

8.2 THE INDIVIDUAL CONSTRUCTION STAGE

The overarching goal in the genre-based *Reading to Learn* approach is to prepare students to use what they have learned through reading to write successfully in school-based genres (Martin & Rose, 2005; Rose & Martin, 2012). Thus, all of the preceding lessons in the Building Field, Preparing to Read, Detailed Reading, and Joint Construction stages aimed to support students in developing increased control over the use of the language resources that function to present content and knowledge, project an authoritative stance, and construct a well-organized text in the persuasive argument essay genre.

The primary goal of the lessons in the Individual Construction stage was for students to follow the same schematic structure and employ the same language resources that had been noticed, discussed, and practiced in the previous stages to independently produce a persuasive argument essay about amnesty. These lessons occurred over four class periods prior to the Memorial Day holiday weekend.

I gave initial instructions to students and set the parameters for this independent writing task. I explained that students could choose whether to write a persuasive argument essay in favor of or against amnesty for undocumented immigrants.

I emphasized that the goal was for students to *pick up the language tools* that they had been learning and *put them to work* as the author of a persuasive argument essay. I further emphasized that students should use these language tools to try to create an authoritative, academic-style persuasive argument essay.

I asked students to take out the rubric (e.g., the Performance Criteria and Assessment Tool) from their binder, and I briefly reviewed the three overarching meanings and the language tools that function to realize these meanings. I stressed that these language tools were meant to

be used throughout the essay to build the three meanings at the same time, as we had studied in the Detailed Reading and Joint Construction lessons.

I recommended that students also refer to the color-coded key of language tools, to the color-coded “for and against” model persuasive essays about amnesty, and to the persuasive essay we had written together as supports for thinking about the way the language tools worked to create an academically well-written persuasive argument essay.

I emphasized that academic writing required thought, time, and effort. A student asked, “Will we rewrite before you grade?” I replied that I did not want students to worry about receiving a grade on this essay as I was interested in whether all of these lessons had helped them in some way to understand how to use the language tools to write a persuasive argument essay in an academically successful way.

I noted that I would use the rubric only to provide students with feedback about how effectively they were able to use the language tools to write a persuasive argument essay on their own. I acknowledged that it would be unfair to count this writing as an actual grade due to the fact that students had four class periods, including the current one, to write this essay which would be a first draft. I reiterated that I wanted students to put forth their best effort to produce a good first draft during these class periods.

I asked students to state what might be the best way to begin, and a student said, “Decide for or against.” I affirmed that deciding whether to write a pro or con essay was definitely the first step, and asked, “And then?” A student replied, “Think of your arguments.” I affirmed that response as well and elaborated that once students had decided upon the three arguments to be presented, they could begin to write.

A student voiced the concern that it would be difficult to think of new arguments given that “We already say all the arguments.” I acknowledged that I had thought about that concern as well. I reminded students that there were several texts in their binders which students could refer to for arguments, evidence, and sources. I stated that it would be acceptable to use arguments which had been introduced in the model essays and joint construction essays since these arguments were powerful arguments both for and against amnesty.

However, I stressed that students could not copy any sentences from those essays. I explained that the beauty of knowing how to use the language tools was that every author in the world could use them to produce a unique, original text. In other words, each author had the power to use the language tools in his or her own way to express his or her point of view in an authoritative and organized persuasive argument essay.

I asked if students had any other questions before they began to work. One student asked if students could work with partners. I replied that it was acceptable to turn to a partner to ask a question but that each student would write his or her own essay. I also reminded students that I was available to answer questions, too, but that I was not going to answer questions such as, “What can my first sentence in this paragraph be?” which drew laughter from students.

One student asked whether students could work on the essays at home. I stated that over the next four class periods, I preferred for students to work in class and to leave their drafts in their binders in the classroom. A student asked, “What if we don’t finish?” and I answered that we would “cross that bridge when we came to it.”

I offered some final encouragement for students to concentrate on deciding upon the three arguments to be presented and to use the texts in their binders to identify some supporting evidence for those arguments. I elaborated that once students had the arguments in mind and an

idea about how to develop each argument, the next step was to use the rubric and example essays to write a good introductory paragraph, which would lay the foundation for developing the arguments in the body paragraphs. I wished them good luck, and students began to work.

8.2.1 Writing the persuasive argument essays

Over the next three class periods, students dedicated their time to writing their own persuasive argument essays about amnesty. Sixteen students chose to write a for-amnesty essay while four students chose to write an against-amnesty essay.

As students wrote, I circulated among them spending more time with students who required more support. For example, one ninth grade special education student had chosen the topics of *crime, jobs, and healthcare* to develop into against-amnesty arguments. However, rather than beginning with an introductory paragraph, this student had written “mini-summaries” of each of these issues based on information in the binder.

I sat with this student and asked him to “talk through” the three arguments he had chosen to present, which he was able to do. I commended him for having found some good evidence to support his arguments in the body paragraphs and invited him to try to state each argument in its own sentence in the introduction. I encouraged him to try to use a nominalization, a modal, and a causal link to name what would happen with crime, or jobs, or healthcare if the U.S. government granted amnesty to undocumented immigrants.

I pointed out the way that the class had accomplished this task in the jointly-written pro-amnesty persuasive argument essay. For example, I read the sentence from the introduction in that essay which stated, “Granting amnesty to undocumented immigrants will lead to growth in the U.S. military.” I suggested that he could start one argument sentence in that same way but

changing *undocumented immigrants* to *illegal aliens* since he was writing an against-amnesty essay.

I invited him to verbalize a potential sentence by asking, “So, how would you finish the sentence about how granting amnesty will affect the crime rate if I said, *Granting amnesty to undocumented immigrants will lead to . . . ?*” He replied, “More and more crime because illegal aliens commit so many crimes.”

I affirmed that this sentence was a good place to start and invited him to write that sentence down as the introduction of his first argument. I suggested that he could then use nominalizations such as, *providing amnesty*, *letting illegal aliens stay in the United States*, or *giving illegal aliens permission to stay in the U.S.* as ways to present his other two arguments.

With most students, it was unnecessary to provide such extensive support. The majority of students wanted me to read and comment on a sentence or confirm whether a selected word was a synonym for another word. Students asked me to comment on their use of evaluative language and to affirm whether a chain of reasoning was evident in a paragraph. Other questions included questions such as, “Should I put connector here?” and “Do you think this is good counter-argument?”

For the most part, I answered these questions by asking the question back to students. For instance, in response to the question, “Do you think this is good counter-argument?” I asked, “Do you think it’s a good counter-argument?” and “How do you plan to refute it?” to allow students to verbalize their own thinking and make their own decisions.

To answer other questions, I vocalized the language tools that I noticed in a student’s sentence or suggested language tools that could be used but avoided direct examples. For instance, one tenth grade student asked me if he had written a good definition sentence for

amnesty in his introductory paragraph. He had written, “Amnesty is governmental program which allows undocumented immigrants to live legally and peacefully.”

I noted that he had made good use of the relational process *is* to define amnesty as a governmental program. I commented that he had also made good use of the causal link *allows* to state the result of this program and had chosen positive evaluative language that indicated his evaluation of the result of this program with the choice of the words *legally* and *peacefully*.

Another twelfth grade student asked me to read the sentence, “The decision to grant amnesty to undocumented immigrants is a deceitful to hardworking Americans.” I noted that I liked the use of the noun phrase *the decision to grant amnesty to undocumented immigrants* and his use of the relational process *is* to define what this decision was for hardworking Americans. I commended his choice of an academic word for *a lie* and explained that in this sentence, he should use the noun form of the adjective *deceitful* which was *deception*.

Another twelfth grade student commented that she was struggling to start the first argument paragraph as she did not want to repeat what she had written in the introduction. I asked how she had presented the argument in the introduction, and she read, “Allowing undocumented immigrants to stay legally in the U.S. will increase cultural diversity.”

I suggested that she take her time to experiment with the language tools by trying to use a nominalization, a modal, and a causal link to express this same argument in another way. I acknowledged that restating arguments in new ways was not an easy task but that it was clear that she knew how the tools worked and just needed to employ them with different words.

I encouraged her again to “try it out” by spending some time on this opening sentence of the second paragraph which would set up the rest of the paragraph to flow nicely. When I returned to her desk later in the class period, she had written, “Giving the privilege to

undocumented immigrants to live in the U.S. legally will strongly expand cultural diversity.” The next sent read, “Increasing cultural diversity will create a peaceful place to live.”

I commended her successful effort to use the language tools to restate her first argument in a new way. I noted that I liked the use of the academic word *privilege* to judge *amnesty* positively. I commented that she had chosen a good synonym for *increase* and that including the adverb *strongly* made her stance as the writer more powerful.

I stated that I particularly liked the way she had used thematic progression to take the idea presented at the end of the first sentence and make it the starting point of the next sentence in a nominalization. Finally, I noted that she had done a great job using a modal of high possibility (e.g., *will*), a causal link (e.g., *create*), and evaluative language (e.g., *peaceful place*) to state and judge the result of the nominalization *increasing cultural diversity*.

Over the course of three class periods, I continued to interact with students around their writing in this manner by responding to students’ questions when asked. At the same time, I encouraged quiet thinking and writing in order to afford students an opportunity to “tackle” the writing task without asking questions after every sentence.

By the end of class on Thursday of that week, some students were still writing the second paragraph, some were writing the third paragraph and a few were writing the fourth paragraph. No students had begun the concluding paragraph.

Students commented that they wanted to take their binders and essays home to finish their work. I decided that this request was reasonable given that school was cancelled the next day, Friday, and that classes would not be held the following Monday due to the Memorial Day holiday. As well, there was no more class time available for writing as I needed to administer

Posttest 1 and the Post-Instructional Unit Survey before seniors began to take final exams. In other words, only four class periods remained before those exams began.

Most importantly, as the goal of the Individual Construction stage was to afford students the opportunity to successfully employ the language resources in a non-evaluative context, it was reasonable to allow students to finish their essays at home. I confirmed that students could take the essay drafts, binders, dictionaries, and thesauri home over the long weekend to complete their writing.

I added that I would ask students to share their essays with a partner the following Tuesday and that I would then collect the essays in order to use the rubric to provide each student with feedback on their writing. In the following section, I provide excerpts from the six focal students' independently written persuasive argument essays about amnesty to illustrate students' appropriation of the linguistic resources that function to create the three overarching meanings in the persuasive argument essay.

8.3 EXCERPTS FROM FOCAL STUDENTS' INDEPENDENTLY WRITTEN ESSAYS

In order to illuminate the way that students appropriated the linguistic tools that had been the focus of the lessons throughout the instructional intervention, I provide excerpts from the six focal students independently written persuasive argument essays about amnesty. Following each excerpt, I provide a brief functional linguistic analysis of the student's appropriation of these linguistic resources.

In the Findings in Chapter 9, I provide the six focal students' pretest and posttest essays in entirety accompanied by functional linguistic analyses of each of these twelve essays. Therefore, in this chapter, I include a one-paragraph excerpt from each of the six focal students' independently written essays for illustrative purposes. Original errors in grammar, spelling, and punctuation remain.

Htoo's introductory paragraph:

The U.S. is in charge of granting amnesty to undocumented immigrants. Amnesty is allowing undocumented immigrants to live peacefully and legally in the United States. Providing amnesty will increase U.S. economy. Interestingly, conceding permission to undocumented immigrants to stay in United States will grow cultural diversity. Most importantly, allowing undocumented immigrants to remain in U.S. will increase funds for public services.

In this introduction, Htoo was fairly successful in accomplishing the purpose of the introductory paragraph. For example, Htoo used a relational process (e.g., *is*) to define amnesty. Htoo presented each argument to be developed in his essay through use of a nominalization (e.g., *providing amnesty*, *conceding permission to undocumented immigrants to stay in U.S.*, and *allowing undocumented immigrants to remain in U.S.*).

Htoo also used the *high possibility* modal *will* and causal links (e.g., *increase* and *grow*) to state the result of the acts expressed in the nominalizations. Furthermore, Htoo employed adverbs (e.g., *interestingly* and *most importantly*) to convey his stance and to organize the presentation of his arguments.

The notable weakness in Htoo's introduction was his failure to create a thesis statement that employed a modal and a consequential marker to strongly convey his position. Otherwise, Htoo successfully employed several linguistic resources to write an authoritative, organized introductory paragraph that alerted the reader to the content to be presented in his essay.

Tika's first argument paragraph:

Legalization of undocumented immigrants will boost the numbers of talented, smart people which means there will be more worker and professor [professionals] such as doctor, teacher, and etc. in future [future]. These clever youth will develop country by combining of more ideas to solve problems. It is well known to everybody that “young kid are builder of nation.”

In this paragraph, Tika used a nominalization (e.g., *legalization of undocumented immigrants*) followed by a strong modal and causal link (e.g., *will boost*) to restate the first argument which she had named in the introductory paragraph as “Amnesty will increase the number of youth in the U.S.” Tika also employed positive evaluative language (e.g., *talented* and *smart*) and clause combining to present direct examples of *talented, smart people*.

Tika employed the use of a cohesive demonstrative (e.g., *these*) and a synonym (e.g., *clever youth*) to refer to the *talented, smart people* introduced in the first sentence. Tika followed the nominal structure *these clever youth* with another modal and causal link (e.g., *will develop country*) and a nominalization following a preposition (e.g., *by combining of more ideas to solve problems*) to explain how the development of the country would occur.

Finally, Tika chose the authoritative phrase *it is well known* rather than the more typical spoken-language phrase *everybody knows* to conclude this paragraph. Interestingly, Tika introduced *young kid are builder of nation* as a common quote which also connected back to the ideas of *clever youth* and *developing the country*.

Asha’s first argument paragraph:

Many business owners and policymaker think that allowing illegal workers to stay legally will increase the U.S. economy and wages of citizen workers. On the contrary, millions of citizens are loose their jobs or can’t find jobs which got over filled with illegal immigrants. In fact, unemployment rate in the U.S. have automatically aggrandized since the number of immigrant increased. Undocumented immigrants only performs job with lower wage, which drop down the wages of trained and highly educated individuals. The people of the U.S. must never be left alone with nothing while under skilled, non taxpayer work.

As one of the few students who elected to write an against-amnesty persuasive argument essay, Asha successfully employed negative evaluative language to authoritatively convey her stance about the effect on the U.S. economy and U.S. workers of legalizing undocumented immigrants. For example, Asha included *illegal workers, millions of citizens lose their jobs or can't find jobs, over filled with illegal immigrants, drop down wages and under skilled, non taxpayer* to negatively evaluate the legalization of illegal immigrants.

Interestingly, Asha chose to open this paragraph with a counter-argument and used a mental process (e.g., *think*) to project other's voices. Asha selected an appropriate phrase (e.g., *on the contrary*) that functioned to refute the counter-argument introduced in the first sentence. Asha then employed the conjunctive link *in fact* to further expand the refutation of the counter-argument with evidence.

Notably, Asha used a thesaurus to select an academic word (e.g., *aggrandized*) to correlate growth in the unemployment rate with an increase in the number of immigrants. Although this sentence was awkwardly worded, it illustrated Asha's effort to be authoritative and utilize academic vocabulary.

Asha also employed clause combining as a resource for writing in a more authoritative and academic manner by choosing to write, "Undocumented immigrants only performs job with lower wage, which drop down the wages of trained and highly educated individuals." In addition, Asha employed positive evaluative language (e.g., *trained* and *highly educated*) to contrast U.S. citizens with the *under-skilled* immigrants.

Finally, Asha further contrasted these two groups in the final sentence and also employed a *high necessity* modal (e.g., *must*) to strongly restate her main position.

Pilar's second argument paragraph:

Con Amnesty people claim that the undocumented immigrants are taking advantage of services that they don't even pay for. Also these people state that, literally, they are paying taxes to have the illegal immigrants use benefits that they don't deserve and they don't even pay, like welfare. This means that not all the money citizens pay is for welfare. Giving amnesty to undocumented immigrants will make them pay taxes as well and the government will get more money from taxes, which will lead to better public services for the citizens around the nation.

Although it is evident that Pilar still struggled with writing authoritatively in a non-spoken style, she did appropriate several linguistic resources that functioned to present content, convey the author's stance, and create an organized paragraph. Like Asha, Pilar began this paragraph with a counter-argument and introduced the voice of the "con-amnesty people" with the verbal process *claim*.

Pilar further projected these voices by using another verbal process (e.g., *state*) to elaborate the claim made by the "con-amnesty people" in the first sentence. Pilar employed a useful language resource (e.g., *on the contrary*) for refuting a counter-argument. Interestingly, Pilar included even more voices (e.g., *several sources*) and another verbal process (e.g., *are saying*) to introduce a statistic (e.g., 3%) as evidence in her refutation of the counter-argument.

In the following sentence, Pilar used the relational process *means* to clarify the meaning of this statistic. Next, Pilar employed a nominalization, a strong modal, and a causal link (e.g., *giving amnesty to undocumented immigrants will make them pay taxes*) to name her argument, state its result, and judge it (e.g., *the government will get more money*). Finally, Pilar employed another strong modal and causal link (e.g., *will lead to*) to create a chain of reasoning.

Roshan's second argument paragraph:

Making illegal immigrant legal will grow college population and undocumented immigrant will gain more knowledge. These skillful learner will start working on their career and be successful in college. Many people believe that undocument immigrant will take their talent to their country after graduating college. On the contrary, undocument immigrant work hard to achieve their goal and graduate for college that mean, they will stay in the U.S. and share their idea to build better community.

In this argument paragraph, Roshan employed several linguistic resources to present and develop his argument in an authoritative, organized manner. In the first sentence, Roshan employed nominalization (e.g., *making illegal immigrant legal*), modals, and causal links (e.g., *will grow* and *will gain*) to present his argument and authoritatively state its results.

In the next sentence, Roshan used a cohesive demonstrative and synonym (e.g., *these skillful learner*) to refer to the college-educated, knowledge undocumented immigrants that he had introduced in the first sentence. Roshan's choice of positive evaluative language (e.g., *start working of their career* and *be successful*) functioned to convey his judgment of *these skilled learner* to the reader.

Roshan then introduced a counter-argument through projection of other's voices (e.g., *many people*) by using the mental process *believe*. Roshan strongly refuted the counter-argument and employed positive evaluative language (e.g., *work hard*, *achieve their goal*, and *graduate for college*) to authoritatively strengthen this counter-argument.

Finally, Roshan used another cohesive demonstrative and a relational process (e.g., *that mean*) to explain the result of undocumented immigrants' efforts to attend college and attain their goals which he conveyed with a modal and causal link (e.g., *will stay in U.S.*) and evaluated positively (e.g., *share their idea to build better community*).

Soe's concluding paragraph:

Providing amnesty to undocumented immigrants will give opportunity to intelligent high school graduate student to apply for college. In addition, these educated young teens can develop new businesses which will lead to economic growth. Finally, having several culture in America who interact to claim ideas and clarify problems will cause U.S. a strong nation.

Soe also appropriated several linguistic resources to reiterate the three arguments in his pro-amnesty persuasive argument essay in an authoritative, academic way. In his first sentence,

Soe used a nominalization, modal and causal link, and positive evaluative language to restate his first argument, restate its result, and judge it.

In the introductory paragraph, Soe had introduced this argument as “Permitting undocumented immigrants in U.S. will grow percentage of young teens who attend college.” Thus, Soe was able to employ the same linguistic resources to reiterate this argument in a novel way in the concluding paragraph.

Soe then employed the conjunctive link *in addition* as a discourse organizational tool to connect the reiteration of his first argument to his restatement of the second one. Soe employed a nominal structure with a cohesive demonstrative (e.g., *these educated young teens*) and a modal of possibility and causal link (e.g., *can develop*) to begin the restatement of his second argument. Through clause combining and another modal and causal link (e.g., *will lead to*), Soe authoritatively concluded his restatement of his second argument. In the introductory paragraph, Soe had introduced this second argument as “Allowing these undocumented immigrant smart teens will increase jobs in U.S.”

Soe chose the conjunctive link *finally* to connect the second argument to the restatement of the third and final argument. Soe appropriated the use of a nominalization, clause combining, and positive evaluative language (e.g., *having several culture in America who interact to claim ideas and clarify problems*) to rename his third argument. Soe then used a modal of high possibility and another causal link (e.g., *will cause*) to state the result of the act introduced through this nominalization. Finally, Soe judged this result with positive evaluative language (e.g., *strong nation*).

These excerpts from the six focal students’ independently written persuasive argument essays about amnesty suggested that some students were able to appropriate the linguistic

resources of focus in the Detailed Reading and Joint Construction lessons for use in their own writing in this genre.

Clearly, these excerpts contained similar arguments and the use of some of the nominalizations used in the model persuasive argument essays and the jointly written essay. Nonetheless, in these excerpts from students' independent work, appropriation of the linguistic resources of focus to present and develop these arguments in novel ways was also evident.

9.0 FINDINGS

9.1 INTRODUCTION TO FINDINGS

In this chapter, I present and explain the findings from analyses of the quantitative and qualitative data for each research question. The research questions, data sources, and data analyses are outlined in the Table 11 below.

Table 11. Research Questions, Data Sources, and Data Analyses

Research Questions	Data Sources	Data Analysis
RQ1: What was the potential effect of the genre-based <i>Reading to Learn</i> instructional approach on adolescent ELLs' ability to write persuasive essays?	Scores on pretest and posttest persuasive essays on two distinct school-based topics derived from the Performance Criteria and Assessment Tool Exemplars of focal students' pre- and posttest persuasive essays	Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test and Paired Samples <i>t</i> -test Functional linguistic analyses (Macken-Horarik, 2011; Martin & Rose, 2008; Schleppegrell, 2006) of the linguistic resources appropriated by focal students in pre- and posttest essays
RQ2: How did adolescent ELLs perceive the effect of the genre-based <i>Reading to Learn</i> instructional approach on their writing development?	Students' responses to post-instructional unit survey Follow-up interviews with six focal students regarding their writing of persuasive essays during the instructional unit	Means and standard deviations for three Likert-scale items on 5-item post instructional survey (Yasuda, 2011) Rich descriptions using an ethnographic approach (Walford, 2008) of focal students' follow-up interview responses.
RQ3: What were the unique challenges of developing and implementing the genre-based <i>Reading to Learn</i> instructional approach with public high school ELLs in the English as a Second Language classroom?	Teacher's reflections on lesson design and implementation informed by students' responses to instructional tasks and activities, revisions to lesson plans; excerpts of videotapes during the instructional intervention. Log of institutional factors affecting instruction (e.g., student attendance, end-of-year student activities, teacher's obligation to be out of the classroom).	Rich descriptions using ethnographic approach (Walford, 2008) of development and implementation of the instructional intervention.

9.2 RESEARCH QUESTION ONE: WHAT WAS THE POTENTIAL EFFECT OF THE GENRE-BASED *READING TO LEARN* INSTRUCTIONAL APPROACH ON ADOLESCENT ELLS’ ABILITY TO WRITE PERSUASIVE ESSAYS?

To address this research question, I analyzed the 20 student participants’ pre- and posttest essays using the theoretically-informed Performance Criteria and Assessment Tool (see Appendix C) for each of the three overarching meanings (e.g., Presentation of Content and Knowledge, Projection of an Authoritative Stance, and Construction of a Well-organized Text) as well as the total score. I provide a summary of these scores, followed by a statistical analysis.

Next, I describe the functional linguistic analyses (e.g., Macken-Horarik, 2011; Scheppegrell, 2006) of each of the six focal students’ pretest/posttest persuasive essays in order to illustrate the changes in students’ writing from pretest to posttest.

9.2.1 Statistical analyses

I used the Performance Criteria and Assessment Tool to assess students’ appropriation and effective use of the linguistic resources that function to construe the three overarching meanings in the persuasive argument essay genre. These three meanings were:

Presentation of Content and Knowledge (PK): Realizing Purpose
Projection of an Authoritative Stance (AS): Meeting Audience Expectations
Construction of a Well-Organized Text (CT): Building Coherence

As described in Chapter 3 Methodology, scores were assigned for each of the 14 linguistic resources employed across the three meanings (e.g., four in PK, four in AS, and six in

CT) using a four-point scale ranging from a score of “1” to indicate that a specific linguistic resource was “Not Effectively Used” to a score of “4” which indicated that a specific linguistic resource was “Very Effectively Used.” Thus, 56 (e.g., 14 x 4) was the highest possible total score.

In Table 12 below, I present the scores assigned using the Performance Criteria and Assessment Tool for each of the 20 student participants’ pretest and posttest essay scores for each of the three meanings as well as the total score. The six focal students’ pseudonyms are included rather than their numeric identifier. The asterisk indicates the essays that were used to establish interrater reliability (see Chapter 3, Methodology).

Table 12. Pretest and Posttest Essay Scores for Three Meanings and Total Score

Student ID	Pretest Essay Scores			Pretest Total (T=56)	Posttest Essay Scores			Posttest Total (T=56)
	PK (T=16)	AS (T=16)	CT (T=20)		PK (T=16)	AS (T=16)	CT (T=20)	
2069	5	4	8	17	5	8	11	24
3030	5	5	6	16	5	7	10	22
7212	5	7	9	21	14	12	17	43
7924*	4	6	9	19	9	12	13	34
Pilar	5	6	8	19	10	15	22	47
3499*	5	5	7	17	6	11	14	31
5773	5	7	7	19	10	8	13	31
Tika*	6	5	8	19	9	13	21	43
2739	5	6	6	17	12	10	16	38
6505	5	7	9	21	6	12	10	28
1314*	7	5	9	21	11	13	13	37
1741	5	5	9	19	6	9	15	30
9833	4	5	6	15	6	9	14	29
Soe	5	5	7	17	8	10	21	39
Htoo*	5	4	6	15	7	13	19	39
Asha*	7	9	9	25	12	15	23	50
4789*	6	7	12	25	11	14	19	44
4532*	4	7	8	19	8	10	14	32
Roshan*	5	7	8	20	12	14	24	50
1306*	5	8	8	21	8	11	11	30

These raw data were used to perform both descriptive and inferential statistical analyses using SPSS. Descriptive statistics obtained across the three meanings (e.g., Presentation of Content and Knowledge or PK, Projection of an Authoritative Stance or AS, and Construction of a Well-Organized Text or CT) as well as for the total score are presented in Table 13 below:

Table 13. Descriptive Statistics for Difference Scores Pretest to Posttest

Meaning Type		Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
N = 20						
PK	Pre	5.15	5.00	.813	4	7
	Post	8.75	8.50	2.673	5	14
	Difference	3.60	3.50			
AS	Pre	6.00	6.00	1.338	4	9
	Post	10.80	11.50	3.318	1	15
	Difference	4.80	5.50			
CT	Pre	7.95	8.00	1.468	6	12
	Post	16.00	14.50	4.472	10	24
	Difference	8.05	6.50			
Total	Pre	19.10	19.00	2.770	15	25
	Post	36.05	35.50	8.249	22	50
	Difference	16.95	16.50			

Using SPSS, the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks non-parametric test was used to produce a sample of difference scores by calculating the difference between the two scores (e.g., posttest scores minus pretest scores) for each student participant. These difference scores for each student participant were calculated across each meaning type (e.g., Presentation of Content and Knowledge or PK, Projection of an Authoritative Stance or AS, and Construction of a Well-Organized Text or CT) as well as for the total difference scores.

The Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test ranked these difference scores from smallest to largest in terms of their absolute values (e.g., without regard to sign). Mean Ranks were then calculated

for all positive and all negative ranks across each of the three meaning types as well as for the total score. These results are reported in Table 14 below:

Table 14. Ranks for Difference Scores on Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

		N = 20	Mean Rank
Post PK – Pre PK	Negative Ranks	0	.00
	Positive Ranks	18	9.50
	Tie	2	
	Total	20	
Post AS – Pre AS	Negative Ranks	1	7.00
	Positive Ranks	19	10.68
	Tie	0	
	Total	20	
Post CT – Pre CT	Negative Ranks	0	.00
	Positive Ranks	20	10.50
	Tie	0	
	Total	20	
Post Total – Pre Total	Negative Ranks	0	.00
	Positive Ranks	20	10.50
	Ties	0	
	Total	20	

A Wilcoxon Z, based on negative ranks, was used to evaluate the data. The results showed a significant increase in students' appropriation and effective use of the 14 linguistic resources after participation in the instructional intervention across the three meanings and for the total: $Z = -3.737$ for Post PK – Pre PK, $p < .001$ (2-tailed); $Z = -3.668$ for Post AS – Pre AS, $p < .001$ (2-tailed); $Z = -3.925$ for Post CT – Pre CT, $p < .001$ (2-tailed); and $Z = -3.921$ for Post Total – Pre Total, $p < .001$ (2-tailed).

To be clear, Table 14 above indicates that an improvement in students' pretest to posttest persuasive essay writing, as evidenced by the appropriation and increased effective use of the 14

linguistic resources delineated on the Performance Criteria and Assessment Tool, occurred for almost every student across the three meaning types and for the total score.

For example, for the Presentation of Content and Knowledge, (e.g., PK) there were no students who performed worse on the posttest writing than on the pretest writing. Eighteen students improved pre- to posttest, and two scored the same pre- to posttest for this type of meaning.

For the Projection of an Authoritative Stance (e.g., AS), one student performed more poorly on the posttest than on the pretest, and 19 students improved pretest to posttest. For the Construction of a Well-Organized Text (e.g., CT), all twenty students improved pretest to posttest. Equally, all twenty students improved for the total score pretest to posttest.

The Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test is recognized as a non-parametric equivalent to the Paired Sample *t*-Test. The Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test makes no assumptions about the normality of the underlying distribution. For very “non-normal” data, the non-parametric Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test may have more power and thus produce a more accurate result than the parametric Paired Sample *t*-Test.

I had predicted that the distribution of difference scores would not be normal given that I expected most students to make noticeable improvements in their persuasive essay writing after participation in the instructional intervention. The results indicated in Table 14 above confirmed this prediction given that there was only one negative difference score between the pre- and posttest (e.g., one student performed more poorly on the posttest than on the pretest for the Projection of an Authoritative Stance scores).

Nonetheless, SPSS was used to conduct a Paired Sample *t*-Test on these data. These results corroborated the significant results found in the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test.

That is, the Paired Samples t-Test indicated a statistically significant improvement in students' appropriation and effective use of the 14 linguistic resources after participation in the instructional intervention across the three meanings and for the total: $M = -3.60$ with $SD = 2.458$, $t(19) = -6.550$, $p < .001$ (2-tailed) for Pre PK to Post PK; $M = -4.80$ with $SD = 3.054$, $t(19) = -7.029$, $p < .001$ (2-tailed) for Pre AS to Post AS; $M = -8.050$ with $SD = 4.513$, $t(19) = -7.977$, $p < .001$ (2-tailed) for Pre CT to Post CT; and $M = -16.95$ with $SD = 7.280$, $t(19) = -10.413$, $p < .001$ (2-tailed) for Pre Total to Post Total.

To illustrate the way that students' appropriation and effective use of the linguistic resources delineated on the Performance Criteria and Assessment Tool changed from pretest to posttest, I present a functional linguistic analysis of each of the six focal students' pretest and posttest persuasive essays. These functional linguistic analyses focused on students' appropriation and use of the 14 linguistic resources that function to construe the three overarching meanings in the persuasive argument essay genre.

9.2.2 Htoo's pretest/posttest persuasive essays

The exemplars provided in this section from the six focal students' pretest and posttest persuasive essays illuminate the changes in these students' appropriation of the linguistic resources that function to construe all three meanings in this genre. These exemplars are included to "bring to life" the statistical results.

I present each student's Pretest and Posttest persuasive essays followed by a brief functional linguistic analysis of the way that each student appropriated the linguistic resources to construe each of the three types of meaning before and after the instructional intervention.

Errors in spelling, punctuation, and grammar made in the original essays are maintained with clarification in brackets (e.g., []) where necessary.

Htoo wrote the following pretest essay:

In my opinion I think students should be require to use a planner because in some of my class students just walk out of the room. Whenever the secretary see them secretary will think students get permission from the teacher to leave classroom.
Another reason I think the students should be require to use a planner because some students forget to do their homeworks. But in planner students have space to write their homework and what is it for to remind [remind] them to do their homework. For example I write down the homework in my planner, when I get home, I check the planner and do the homework that was assign to me.
Those are the reasons I think students should be require to use planner during school years.

To Present Content and Knowledge in his pretest essay about whether students should be required to use a planner, Htoo presented two arguments using the structure, *I think students should be require to use a planner because . . .* That is, Htoo connected his arguments to his reasons for them through the use of the conjunction *because* indicative of writing that is congruent to speaking and common in less-developed writing (Christie, 2012).

Htoo did not employ nominal structures to present his arguments, and did not include a counter-argument. In addition, he did not define for the reader what a student planner was.

In this pretest essay, Htoo failed to Project an Authoritative Stance. He wrote his essay from a personal viewpoint (e.g., use of *In my opinion* and *I think*). In addition, both of Htoo's argument statements as well as his concluding statement employed the use of the *low necessity* modal *should*, thus conveying a non-authoritative evaluation of the importance of the use of student planners.

Although Htoo included some evaluative language to construct his arguments (e.g., *students have space to write their homework*, and *remind them to do their homework*), there was

little evidence of deliberate inclusion of evaluative language to create an authoritative stance in the construction of his arguments.

In addition, Htoo focused this pretest essay from his own point of reference within the school setting without an attempt to introduce the perspective of students in general on this topic or to project other's voices through the use of mental or verbal processes.

To Construct an Organized Text, Htoo organized his pretest essay into three paragraphs. However, he presented his first argument as the central idea in the first paragraph rather than writing a thesis statement and presenting each of the arguments to be developed. In his conclusion, Htoo did not restate his specific arguments.

Although Htoo employed discourse organizational resources (e.g., *in my opinion*, *another reason*, *for example*, and *those are the reasons*), he did not employ nominal structures and internal connectors to create a chain of reasoning.

Htoo wrote the following posttest essay:

Having lunch detention policy is fair to the students for several reasons. First, students will not cut classes. Second, most students will not late to classes. Lastly, students will not drink soda or other drink in classes.
Permitting this policy will decrease the amount of students cutting classes. Without lunch detention policy students will think cutting classes is acceptable. Thinking cutting class is acceptable will lead students to cut classes. Cutting classes will not benefit students. This policy will force students to go to class and learn what the teachers taught.
Lunch detention policy will dramitically increase students that go to class on time. Prior permitting this policy students come to class whenever they feel like to. Having lunch detention policy will make students to go to class on time and ready to learn.
Having this acceptable policy will decrease amount of students drink soda or other drinks in class. Having this policy will make less distraction for the students that are ready to learn. Without lunch detention policy, thee students that are ready to learn will be distracted by the students that drink soda in class. Intelligents students may ask for a drink from their classmates, which distract their learning and future.

<p>Lunch detention policy is fair to every students for their learning. The reason is fair to students is it will make less distraction. School must try to decrease amount of students cutting classes, tardy and drinks.</p>
--

In contrast to his pretest essay, Htoo employed a number of the linguistic resources that function to construe the three meanings in his posttest persuasive essay about whether the school's lunch detention policy was fair. For example, to Present Content and Knowledge, Htoo utilized nominal structures to name his arguments in the three body paragraphs (e.g., *permitting this policy*, *lunch detention policy*, and *having this acceptable policy*).

Although he did not use modality in his thesis statement, he used a nominalization to name the *act* of the school's decision to have a lunch detention policy and a relational process (e.g., *is*) to present his stance about the policy's fairness.

Htoo was much more successful in the Projection of an Authoritative Stance in the posttest essay than he was in the pretest essay. For instance, Htoo employed the modal *will* and markers of consequential meanings (e.g., *decrease*, *lead*, *force*, *make*, *be distracted*) throughout the essay.

Htoo also incorporated a fair amount of evaluative language in the presentation of evidence to support his arguments. For example, Htoo included words and phrases such as, *acceptable*, *will not benefit*, *force*, *go to class on time*, *ready to learn*, *dramatically*, *less distraction*, and *intelligent students* throughout the essay.

Although Htoo still failed to project other's voices into the essay and to include a counter-argument, he did authoritatively express his judgment about the benefits of the lunch detention policy for students who were *ready to learn* in the third and fourth paragraphs.

Finally, Htoo successfully Constructed an Organized Text in his posttest essay through the use of a variety of linguistic resources. Notably, he presented the arguments to be developed

in the introductory paragraph and employed sequence markers (e.g., *first, second, and lastly*) to organize this presentation of arguments. Htoo then developed his arguments one by one in separate paragraphs.

Htoo also constructed a chain of reasoning to develop his arguments. For example, in the second paragraph he stated that “permitting this policy will decrease amount of students cutting classes.” In the next sentence, Htoo employed a nominal structure (e.g., *without lunch detention policy*) and a modal and causal link (e.g., *will think*) to convey that not having a lunch detention policy would lead students to think about cutting classes.

He then employed thematic progression by beginning the following sentence, *thinking cutting classes is acceptable* in order to set up the result of this type of thinking (e.g., *will lead students to cut classes*). He concluded this paragraph by using the cohesive demonstrative *this* to name the previously mentioned lunch detention policy as *this policy* and implied that the end result of this reduction in class cutting, due to *this policy* would be that students would be forced to attend class and learn.

Although Htoo’s concluding paragraph did not reiterate his three arguments in favor of the lunch detention policy (e.g., reduction in class cutting, tardiness to class, and drinking in class), he tried to convey that the learning environment would be improved by reducing these infractions through having a lunch detention policy.

9.2.3 Tika’s pretest/posttest persuasive essays

Tika wrote the following pretest essay:

In my view the students should make a used of planner because student could remember their homework, class activity, calender, test grade, and etc. So, obviously planner are important to the student to remember homework.
To me planner is mantadary [mandatory] because some of my class homework are big part of grade so, planner help to rember [remember] the homework. Also planner contain lots of thing in it such as world map, list of presidents in order, planet, periodic table, formula and including unit of measurement. You can use the planner in math, science, and history class. Take a advantage from planner.
The reason listed above about the planner are fact and about 500 student like the idea bout planner. I would like to recomanded [recommend] some of my friend who are not using the planner is to use it, feel it and take advantage of it. Also I would like to thank to person who come up with a berilent [brilliant] idea to make a planner for student.

In Tika's pretest persuasive essay about the requirement for students to use planners, there was very little evidence of the employment of nominal structures to Present Content and Knowledge. Like Htoo, Tika also employed the conjunction *because* as a consequential marker and used the *low necessity* modal *should* in her thesis statement. Tika also failed to offer a definition for *student planner* as well as to introduce a counter-argument.

Tika's pretest essay implied a fully personal relationship with the reader rather than an impersonal one. Tika interspersed personal phrases throughout the essay (e.g., *in my view*, *to me*, and *I would like to*). In addition, the use of *so* followed by the modal adjunct *obviously*, the use of the personal pronoun *you*, and her inclusion of the imperative *take advantage from planner* reflected her friendly, non-authoritative relationship with the reader.

Tika's personal tone was further evident in her recommendation that her friends who did not use the planner begin to *use it*, *feel it*, and *take advantage of it*. Lastly, Tika extended a personal expression of "thanks" to the person who decided to make planners available to students.

In the pretest essay, Tika attempted to build an explicit point of view and to incorporate evaluative language. Uses of evaluative language included *important* and *brilliant*. Tika also

emphasized that all of the reasons she listed in favor of the planner were “fact,” and included other’s voices by claiming that “about 500 student like the idea about planner.”

Overall, however, Tika only succeeded in building an explicit point of view around her sole argument in the second paragraph by judging the use of the planner (e.g., *mandatory*), using the consequential marker *so* to state the reason why using the planner was helpful, listing the resources contained in the planner, suggesting its usefulness across subject areas, and *urging* others to *take advantage of the planner*.

To Construct an Organized text, Tika conveyed her opinion in three separate paragraphs. However, Tika introduced and developed only one argument. Tika’s pretest essay did not contain any use of the structure *nominalization*, *modal* and *causal link* in order to present an argument, state its result, and judge that result. Although Tika used the pronoun *it* to refer to the planner, this pretest essay lacked the use of referents such as, *this use of a planner*, or *this requirement for students to use planners* that function to build coherence.

Tika wrote the following posttest essay:

Having lunch detention policy is fair to students which will lead them to follow the school rules. There are several reasons to give lunch detention. First, students will follow the rules. Second, students get in time. Third, students will quit eating or drinking during the class time.
Giving lunch detention will make the student to follow the rules. If the student follows the rule and law the school will be more famous and more students want to join, and it is obvious [obvious] that students need a good environment in order to learn something.
Granting lunch detention will make students to arrive class in time. Arriving class in time is a benefit to students in such a way students can not miss the warm up, respecting the teacher, even students can ask their grade, and get help from teacher. It is a well known fact that “school is a temple”, once the prayer starts you have to be there [there] on time.
Giving lunch detention will stop enjoying the snacks [snacks] during the class. Students cannot focus on the teacher. There will be a chance that students lose their grade and have to repeat [repeat] the same class. Repeating [Repeating] the same class will make students frustrated [frustrated]. And annoying to listen to the same teacher, same class and even a same seat [seat].
Providing lunch detention will encourage students to follow the rules and as well as be in discipline [discipline]. Secondly students approach class on time. Thirdly students will quit eating during class. According to the reasons listed above, students must get lunch detention.

Tika's increased the appropriation and effective use of the linguistic resources which function to construe the three meanings in her posttest essay. Tika proposed her position through a thesis statement that employed the use of a nominalization (e.g., *having lunch detention policy*), the use of a relational process (e.g., *is*) to state the fairness of this act, and a strong modal (e.g., *will*) and consequential marker (e.g., *lead to*) to suggest the result of this act.

Tika further developed the Presentation of Content and Knowledge through continued use of nominal structures to name the arguments throughout the essay (e.g., *giving students lunch detention, granting lunch detention, and providing lunch detention*). As in the pretest essay, however, Tika did not introduce a counter-argument.

In the posttest essay, Tika was much more successful in the effective Projection of an Authoritative Stance than she had been in the pretest essay. Tika did not use any personal

pronouns in the posttest essay. She also included evaluation and judgment in an authoritative way and used modality and causal links to build an explicit point of view.

For example, Tika judged that granting lunch detention *will make student to follow the rules, will make student to arrive call in time, and will stop enjoying the snacks during the class*. Tika sprinkled evaluative language throughout the posttest essay with lexical choices such as, *more famous, good environment, learn something, benefit, respecting the teacher, school is a temple, and be in discipline*.

Although Tika did not employ projection through mental or verbal processes to bring in other's voices to support or challenge her stance, she did employ language resources such as, *it is obvious, and it is a well-known fact* to convey a more authoritative relationship with the reader than she had projected in the pretest essay.

Finally, Tika also more successfully Constructed and Organized Text than she had in the pretest essay. First, she wrote an introduction that named the arguments to be developed using the sequence words, *first, second, and third* as well as modals of *high possibility* (e.g., *will*) and causal links (e.g., *follow the rules, get on time, and quit eating or drinking*). Then, Tika developed these arguments in separate paragraphs.

In addition, Tika made an effort to create a chain of reasoning, which included the use of thematic progression. For instance, she presented the argument in the second paragraph that "Granting lunch detention will make student to arrive class in time." She began the next sentence by making *arriving class in time* as the point of departure for the next sentence to suggest that punctuality was beneficial for students.

Tika continued this chain of reasoning by employing the internal connector *in such a way* to list the benefits of being on time to class. She concluded this chain of reasoning by

metaphorically representing the *school is a temple* in order to strengthen her claim that being on time to class was as important as being on time for prayers.

In the concluding paragraph, Tika reiterated the three arguments that were presented in the introduction. She then employed the conjunctive link *according to the reasons listed above*, as a discourse organizational tool and included a strong modal of *high necessity* (e.g., *must*) in order to restate her main position in favor of the lunch detention policy.

9.2.4 Asha's pretest/posttest essays

Asha wrote the following pretest essay:

Students should be required to use a planner in XXXX [wrote name of school] High School because it will help them be more organized and become successful. As we know, students get homeworks and so many other works to do after school. This said, students must be required to use a planner.
Using a planner will be very useful to the students because they could write down what they need to do or remember to do after or before school. Many student might not know what to do when they get home, so what a great way to look back at what is there to be done.
In high school, we are suppose to prepare students for college and for their future career. However, In many classes, students say they forget their homework or didn't know they got one. Furthermore, a planner is one way a student could keep him/herself organized.
In conclusion, students must be required to use a planner no matter what, because as the school principal, we should do what we can to help the students succeed.

Asha's pretest persuasive essay about student planners suggested that this student possessed a fundamental knowledge base about how to organize a text and write persuasively. Nonetheless, Asha's lack of control over the language resources that function to construe meanings in an academically-valued persuasive essay was apparent in this pretest essay.

Notably, Asha presented only one major argument, that students' use of a planner was an important organizational tool.

To Present Content and Knowledge, Asha made little use of nominal structures, with the exception of *using a planner* in the second paragraph. In the introductory paragraph, Asha presented her main argument by employing the *low necessity* modal *should* and using the conjunction *because* to present the reason for her stance. In the last sentence of this introduction, Asha did use a *high necessity* modal to reiterate her stance by writing, "This said, students *must* be required to use a planner.

In the second paragraph, Asha restated this argument by beginning with the nominalization *using a planner* and employed the modal *will* and the relational verb *be* to set up her judgment of this use of a planner (e.g., *very useful*). However, Asha missed the opportunity to present this argument in a more authoritative manner by choosing to use *because* again to state the reason why "using a planner will be very useful to students," and choosing the *low possibility* modal *could* to introduce the result of using a planner.

Asha not only conveyed a personal, friendly relationship with the reader but left ambiguous with whom she aligned herself as the author. For example, in the first two paragraphs, her selection of language resources to convey these relationships was of a personal nature (e.g., *as we know* and *so, what a great way*) suggesting that she may be writing from the viewpoint of a fellow student. However, she did not identify herself as a student as evidenced by her choices to refer to students as *students*, *they*, and *them*.

In the third and fourth paragraphs, Asha aligned herself with school administrators by choosing to write "we are suppose to prepare students for college," and "as the school principal,

we should . . .” thus creating a confusing shift for the reader about her relationship with the reader. This shift also hindered Asha’s effectiveness in building an explicit point of view.

Asha used projection through a verbal process (e.g., *students say*) to introduce students’ voices, and she included some evaluative language (e.g., *be more organized, become successful, very useful, what a great way, and no matter what*). However, she did not effectively use modality, choosing modals of *lower possibility* and *lower necessity* (e.g., *might, could, and, supposed to, and should*) in the development of her argument.

In short, Asha failed to effectively use evaluative language, modality, markers of consequential meaning, and projection to Project an Authoritative Stance.

To achieve the Construction of a Well-Organized text, Asha organized her pretest essay into four paragraphs with a clear introduction and conclusion. Asha employed internal connectors and conjunctive links (e.g., *so, because, or, however, and in conclusion*) as well as circumstances of place (e.g., *in high school and in many classes*) as discourse organizational tools. Notably, though, she misused the conjunctive link *furthermore* to mean “thus” in the last sentence of the third paragraph.

However, Asha failed to effectively employ nominal structures and conjunctive links to create a logical chain of reasoning. That is, she failed to construct the chain of reasoning that the use of student planners would lead to students keeping track of homework and other tasks, which would lead to higher levels of organization, which would lead to increased academic success.

Asha wrote the following posttest essay:

<p>The lunch detention policy is unfair to students. This policy must certainly not be neccerry [necessary] for several reasons. First, giving a lunch detention to students will decrease the confidence to learning. In addition, this unfair punishment is taking students free time. Lastly, students will not be served the same food as normal lunch.</p>
<p>School policymaker believe that lunch detention will teach important lesson to students who disbehave in school. Actually, punishing them will only take away their confidence about learning. Having a proud feeling toward learning is what lead students to behave right. However, punishing them again and again increases their bad behavior. Many students felt like they are trap while in lunch detention.</p>
<p>Lunch is the only time that student get to hang out with their friends and take a break from the long classes. Hanging out with friends take the pressure away from the students who had a long focus, working hard in their classes. However, lunch detention only make things worse for student who were looking forward to seeing theirs friend and have fun.</p>
<p>Although students who get that punishment deserved to be alone, they should not be served with bad, adtaquate (not enough) foods. Usually students take 4 type of food in lunch that they chioces [choose]. However in lunch detention, the student will have to take the only food that is served, whether they like it or not. The students must not be treated like criminal who are in jail.</p>
<p>Verys [Every] student come to school to learn, not to be punished in a way that they are not happy. Lunch detention will only make the student feel less interesting in learning. In addition, giving lunch detention means that students free time of doing other important stuffs. Finally, it is very unfair for the student to get unacceptable food. As student of the school, lunch detention must be reject against.</p>

In contrast to her pretest essay, Asha appropriated the language resources that function to create a successful persuasive argument in a more effective way in her posttest essay.

In her posttest essay, Asha took a stand against the lunch detention policy. To Present Content and Knowledge, Asha employed a relational process (e.g., *is*) in her first sentence to attribute the quality of *unfairness* to the lunch detention policy. In the next sentence, although she used a combination of modals that would not be used by a Standard English speaker (e.g., *must certainly not be necessary*), this use of modality functioned to make her position clear to the reader. She included the consequential marker *for many reasons* to set up the presentation of her arguments.

Asha employed nominal structures to name the arguments to be developed throughout the essay. These nominal structures included both nominalizations (e.g., *giving lunch detention* and *punishing them*) as well as expanded noun phrases (e.g., *this unfair punishment*). In addition, Asha presented a clear counter-argument in the second paragraph and then employed the modal adjunct *actually* to set up her refutation of that counter-argument.

Asha employed several linguistic resources to more effectively convey an Authoritative Stance in the posttest essay. Importantly, although Asha identified herself as a student in the final sentence (e.g., *as students of the school*), she did not employ any personal pronouns in the essay.

Asha employed modality that constructed *high possibility* and markers of consequential meanings throughout the essay to build an explicit point of view. For example, she used *will decrease the confidence to learning* in the introductory paragraph, *will only take away their confidence about learning* in the second paragraph, and *will only make the students feel less interesting in learning* in the concluding paragraph.

Asha successfully projected other's voices through a mental process in the opening sentence of the second paragraph (e.g., *school policymaker believe*) which functioned to introduce a counter-argument. She also included students' voices in the final sentence of this paragraph through the claim *many students felt like they were trap while in lunch detention*.

Evaluative language that functioned to authoritatively construct arguments with claims and evidence can be noted throughout Asha's posttest essay. For instance, Asha included evaluative language in the argument that *giving lunch detention will decrease the confidence to learning* in the introductory paragraph and followed this evaluation by the judgment *having a proud feeling toward learning is what lead students to behave right* in the second paragraph.

Asha further employed the resource of appraisal (e.g., evaluation and judgment) to judge lunch detention negatively through other lexical choices throughout the posttest essay. These choices included *disbehave*, *unfair*, *bad*, *trapped*, *make things worse*, *inadequate*, and *unacceptable*, and *treated like criminal who are in jail*.

Asha was successful in the Construction of a Well-Organized text in the posttest essay. Not only did she organize her writing following the schematic structure of this genre (e.g., introduction to present arguments, body paragraphs to develop arguments, and conclusion to reiterate arguments), Asha effectively employed both thematic progression and the use of synonyms as referents throughout this essay.

Uses of thematic progression included *take away their confidence about learning* to end one sentence and *having a proud feeling toward learning* to begin the next sentence in the second paragraph. In the third paragraph, Asha presented lunchtime as the only time that students *get to hang out with their friends and take a break from long classes* in one sentence and positioned that idea as Theme in the following sentence with *hanging out with friends take the pressure away from the students*.

Asha effectively employed synonyms as a cohesive device in the posttest essay. For example, she used *this unfair punishment* and *punishing them* as synonyms for *giving lunch detention*. In addition, Asha chose *hanging out with friends* and *seeing their friends* as other nominal structures to refer to *students' free time*. Finally, Asha chose the noun phrase *unacceptable food* in the last paragraph to refer to the *bad, inadequate food* in the preceding paragraph.

Asha successfully employed a chain of reasoning in the posttest essay through the use of nominal structures and internal connectors, including conjunctive links. In particular, Asha

made effective use of the contrastive conjunction *however* to challenge the use of the lunch detention policy and establish its negative effect on students.

For example, Asha claimed, *However, punishing them again and again increase their bad behavior* in the second paragraph. She wrote, *However, lunch detention only make things worse for students* in the third paragraph, and *However, in lunch detention, the student will have to take the only food that is served* in the fourth paragraph.

Overall, Asha's appropriation and effective use of the linguistic resources that function to construe the three meanings in an academic persuasive argument essay clearly increased from pretest to posttest.

9.2.5 Pilar's pretest/posttest essays

Pilar wrote the following pretest essay:

A planner is in another words an agenda who helps the students to be organize and be on time with the homeworks and projects. Also the planner helps the staff of the school to know whether or not a student have permission to be in the hallways, bathroom, etc.
The planner helps the student to be organize because, they can write down all the work they have to do and the assignments they have to study.
Also the student can remember by looking at their planners when they have a homework, a project or activity. This is important because that way they are always prepared.
The planner is a very important tool for the school staff. The planner let them know if a student have permission or not to be were [where] they are in that moment (hallway, bathroom, etc.).
Clearly, we can say that the planner helps the student to be organize and be on time with there [their] assignments. Also helps the staff to have knowlege about were [where] the students have to be. Because this reason and many more the planner should be always use.

In the pretest essay, Pilar exhibited very little control over the language resources that function to construe the three major meanings in a persuasive argument essay. Although she defined what a planner was and used the consequential marker *helps* to suggest its usefulness to both students and staff, Pilar failed to develop a thesis statement and to present the arguments to be developed in her introduction.

Pilar chose to Present Content and Knowledge by simply restating the way that the planner was useful to students and staff in either a single sentence or two sentences which served as “body paragraphs.” Also, she failed to use nominalization or other expanded noun phrases to name the points to be developed. Instead, she chose to employ the nouns *the planner* or *the students* as the Theme of most sentences.

Pilar also failed to Project an Authoritative Stance in this pretest essay. For example, she did not effectively utilize modality or markers of consequential meanings to build an explicit point of view. Instead, she employed modals of *low possibility* (e.g., *can*) and *low necessity* (e.g., *should*) and relied mainly on the conjunction *because* as a consequential marker to construct her two “main points.”

Although Pilar employed some evaluation (e.g., *this is important*, *important tool*, and *clearly*), her pretest essay lacked evaluative language overall. Pilar’s pretest essay further lacked the use of projection to introduce other’s voices, and she did not include a counter-argument.

Regarding the Construction of a Well-Organized text, Pilar’s lack of control over the language resources that function to build coherence was also evident. Importantly, Pilar did not succeed in creating a chain of reasoning as her arguments were underdeveloped. Instead, the body paragraphs comprised brief restatements of the two reasons why the planner was helpful to students and staff that she had stated in the introduction.

Although Pilar's pretest essay employed some use of referents (e.g., *they* for the students and *them* to refer to the school staff) and some use of conjunctive links (e.g., *also*, and *because this reason and many more*), she did not employ thematic progression or other cohesive referents in order to effectively build coherence. Overall, Pilar's pretest essay reflected the control of language resources more typically associated with younger students.

Pilar wrote the following posttest essay:

Lunch detention is a very fair policy. This policy consist in if a studen have bad behaviors, for example, arriving late to class and a lot of more reasons, they will be suspended of lunch for one day. Schools must continue with the lunch detention policy for several reasons. First, having this ponishment students will respect their teachers and classmates. Secondly, studens will have much better behaviors. By having better behaviors the studens will imprube [improve] their education and knowlege.
Lunch detention will imprube [improve] studens respect towars the teachers and classmates. If a student know that desrespecting they will not be able to enjoy their lunch with their friends freedly, the students will realized that having respect for others they can enjoy and have fun with no problems.
The other reason why lunch detention is importan, is that by having this policy the students will have better behaviors, by knowing that if they don't, for example, refeed [refer] to others apropiety [appropriately] they will be suspended out of lunch.
Students who have a good behavior will increase the quality of education of the school. Having good and productive students in the school will strenth [strengthen] the school good reputation and will inspire others to follow this expectacular [spectacular] model.
Clearly, respect, behaviors, educated and well prepared students, definively [definitely] will crete [create] better profectionals [professional] and better humans for the future. This reasons exlain very well why lunch detention is important in every school.

In contrast, Pilar's posttest essay reflected the development of more sophisticated control over the language resources that function to construe the three meanings in the persuasive argument essay genre. This further control in the employment of these language resources was evident in the Presentation of Content Knowledge in her posttest essay.

Notably, Pilar presented content in a more effective and academic introduction in her posttest essay about lunch detention. Pilar began the introduction by employing the relational process *is* to attribute this policy as a fair one. Next, Pilar made an effort to further define *this policy* by explaining why it would be assigned as well as the consequence for students (e.g., *will be suspended of lunch for one day*).

Following these two explanatory sentences was a thesis statement that effectively employed a modal of *high necessity* (e.g., *must*) and the consequential marker *for several reasons* to propose her position in favor of the continuation of the lunch detention policy and to set up the presentation of her arguments. Pilar then employed a nominalization (e.g., *having this punishment*) and a modal of *high possibility* (e.g., *will*) to present two arguments.

Pilar continued to employ nominal structures in the presentation of her arguments in subsequent paragraphs. For example, she used *the other reason why lunch detention is important* in the third paragraph, *students who have a good behavior* in the fourth paragraph, and *respect, behaviors, educated and well prepared students* in the concluding paragraph.

To Project an Authoritative Stance in the posttest essay, Pilar paired *will*, a strong modal of possibility, with causal links (e.g., *increase, improve, realize, be suspended, strengthen, and create*) throughout the essay in order to build an explicit point of view. Pilar also used mental processes such as, *know* and *realize* to project students' voices into the essay.

In addition, Pilar employed a fair amount of evaluative language in an authoritative, impersonal way to construct her two arguments with claims and evidence. For instance, Pilar employed this use of evaluative language in evidence presented to support her argument that "lunch detention will improve students' respect towards teachers and classmates."

The following sentence (evaluate language italicized) read, “If a student know that *disrespecting* they will not be able to *enjoy* their lunch with their friends *freedly*, the students will realized that *having respect for others* they can *enjoy* and *have fun* with *no problems*.” Although this sentence was poorly constructed and contained other errors, it demonstrated Pilar’s appropriation of the language resource of evaluation.

Pilar was more successful in the Construction of a Well-Organized Text in the posttest essay than she had been in the pretest essay. The introduction named the points to be developed which were then developed in the body paragraphs and reiterated in the conclusion.

Although Pilar did not develop a full chain of reasoning in any one paragraph, she made an effort to employ nominal structures and internal connectors to build a chain of reasoning throughout the essay. That is, she conveyed that the lunch detention policy would lead to *better behaviors* which would *increase the quality of education*, which would, in turn, *strengthen the school’s good reputation and inspire others to follow this expectacular model*.

Finally, Pilar employed the language resources of cohesive demonstratives (e.g., *this* policy), synonyms (e.g., *refer to others appropriately* for *respect teachers and classmates*), and thematic progression (e.g., *students will have much better behaviors* followed by *by having better behaviors*) to build coherence in the posttest essay.

9.2.6 Roshan’s pretest/posttest persuasive essays

Roshan wrote the following pretest essay:

Student should be required to use a planner because they can record all the things they do in the planner. Planner is useful to student and It keep them up to the date. For example, If your teacher give you homework, you can write it on your planner as a reminder. You can use planner to go anywhere during the class like office, restroom, and to other class. I think everyone in the school should use a planner and It is important. On the negative side student don't use the planner and use it for different things like drawing, and other not valuable thing. With the planner student can write a note about them, what they did in the class, or write about outcomming [upcoming] event.

You can use planner for so many things and It keep student in the right track. Planner help you to remind your work and keep record how your [you're] doing. It is also give you permission to go to specific place. Most of the student does not use planner or lost it, therefore teacher should provide them one, so the student can use the planner for special needs. I think everyone should have there [their] own planner, so they can remember to do their. It also help them to get grade because they remember to do their homework, classwork and study for the quiz. Planner is important for all the student.

In his pretest essay, Roshan, like Asha, demonstrated some fundamental awareness of how to use language as a tool to create persuasion using an informal tone. However, this pretest essay indicated that he was unable to control the language resources to construe the three overarching meanings in an academic manner.

To Present Content and Knowledge, Roshan did employ a modal (e.g., *should*) and a consequential marker (e.g., *because*) in an opening statement. However, he had chosen a *low necessity* modal and a more speech-like way of expressing a causal connection. In addition, this opening sentence introduced his main argument rather than conveying his overall stance toward the use of student planners.

In his presentation of content, Roshan failed to effectively employ nominalization or expanded noun phrases to name the arguments to be developed. Instead, he began several sentences with *planner*, *it*, *you*, or *students* and then presented his claims.

Roshan made an effort to introduce a counter-argument through conceding a negative side to the way some students used the planner (e.g., for different things like drawing and other not valuable thing). He began the following sentence with the marked Theme *with the planner*

followed by a list of what students could accomplish by using it in an effort to refute this negative side.

Roshan failed to achieve the Projection of an Authoritative Stance in this pretest essay. For example, he employed personal pronouns throughout the essay (e.g., *you can* and *I think*) to convey his point of view. Although he employed modality and consequential meanings in an effort to build an explicit point of view, he chose modals of *low necessity* and *possibility* (e.g., *should* and *can* and a speech-like way of stating a causal link.

With more control over these resources, Roshan may have rewritten the sentence “Everyone should have their own planner so they can remember to do their homework” as “Using the planner as an organizational tool will ensure that students remember to complete homework.”

In the pretest essay, Roshan did employ projection through a mental process (e.g., *I think*) in order to support his own arguments, although in a personal way. He also included some use of evaluative language to convey his appraisal of the use of the planner such as, *planner is important for all the student* and *it keep student in the right track*.

Roshan struggled in the pretest essay to Construct a Well-Organized text. Pointedly, he made organizing his arguments difficult as he provided claims and evidence in his introduction rather than creating a thesis statement to propose a position and naming the arguments to be developed in subsequent paragraphs. That is, in the introduction, he included claims and evidence to support his argument that planners should be required.

Roshan employed a few conjunctive links (e.g., *for example* and *therefore*) as discourse organizational tools but failed to employ nominal structures, causal links, and conjunctions

within any one paragraph in order to construct a chain of reasoning. Therefore, Roshan did not achieve the development of any one argument in any paragraph.

Roshan wrote the following posttest essay:

Lunch detention policy is fair to students, who does not follow direction in the class. Giving lunch detention to student will improve learning environment. In addition, student are disrespectful to the teacher, therefore teacher must give detention. Furthermore, without detention student will stop caring about there [their] grade and class. Detention is a punishment for student that allow them to be in the right direction.
Lunch detention help to make learning fascinating and peaceful. Teacher must give lunch detention to student, when they are bad influence and try to destroy learning environment. Giving lunch detention to student will create better school to learn. Student who distrust [disrupt] class should give lunch detention.
Student are mean and annoying to teacher, so teacher has to give lunch detention to student. These good learners are late to class sometime and teachers has choice what to do with student. For example, teacher can sign student for lunch detention or give them warning. Student make noise [noise], talk when teacher is talking and do other many things to distract learning, so teacher must give lunch detention to student.
Without detention student has choice to do what ever they want in the class. Many people believe that detention will effect learning environment. On the other hand, detention help student to get on the right direction. Student will not obey the rules without detention.
Lunch detention policy is very important to student and It helps them to be good learner. With lunch detention student will make a progress in the work. In addition, sometime student does not follow direction what teacher say. Furthermore, detention help them to do in the right direction. Lunch detention is very important to student that alloud [allows] them to improve learning environment.

In Roshan's posttest essay in favor of the school's lunch detention policy, he demonstrated the development of improved control over the language resources that function to construe the three kinds of meanings in a persuasive argument essay.

Roshan was able to more effectively Present Content and Knowledge by employing nominal structures to prepare to name his arguments (e.g., *giving lunch detention to student*, *students who disrupt class*, and *lunch detention policy*). Roshan also employed the relational

process *is* in the introduction to define *lunch detention* as a “punishment” and in both the introduction and conclusion to attribute the qualities of fairness and importance to this policy.

Roshan also achieved a more effective Projection of an Authoritative Stance in this posttest essay as evidenced first and foremost by the absence of the personal pronouns that filled his pretest essay. Instead, Roshan employed the modals *will* and *must*, consequential markers such as, *improve*, *allow*, *help*, and *create*, and ample evaluative language to construct his arguments in a more authoritative manner.

Examples of these “language tools at work” in his posttest essay included, *lunch detention help to make learning fascinating and peaceful* and *giving lunch detention to student will create better school to learn*. Other uses of evaluative language to judge the need for this policy included *bad influence*, *destroy learning*, and *disrupt class*.

Roshan made an effort to include other’s voices through projection (e.g., *many people believe*) in an effort to introduce a challenge to his own stance. However, Roshan exhibited a lack of control over the resources for concession and refutation when he wrote, “Many people believe that detention will effect learning environment. On the other hand, detention help student to get on the right direction.” With more control over these resources, Roshan may have written, “Although many people believe that detention will negatively affect the learning environment, this policy will clearly lead students to get on the right track.”

Finally, Roshan greatly improved the Construction of a Well-Organized text in his posttest essay. Roshan followed the schematic structure of the persuasive argument essay genre to organize his essay. He also employed conjunctive links as discourse organizational tools (e.g., *in addition*, *furthermore*, and *for example*).

Notably, though, Roshan still struggled to construct a clear chain of reasoning within paragraphs. This struggle was evident in the way that Roshan combined his argument that lunch detention would create an improved learning environment with his argument that teachers must give lunch detention to reduce student disrespect in both the second and third paragraphs.

Overall, however, Roshan was more successful at using language as a tool to construe meanings in this posttest essay than he had been in the pretest essay.

9.2.7 Soe's pretest/posttest persuasive essays

Soe wrote the following pretest essay:

My viewpoint about the use of student planners this year should not be require because student could cheat on it. Such as writing down on planner time and signature on their own and show up to classroom late. Also there is a rule that is student lost their planner they should pay \$5 dollars and get new one, but most student doesn't do that they just borrows their friends or classmates planner when they need to use it. I've see a lot of students are doing these kind of things everyday. I know that student could write down homework on planner to help their self, but what I've seen in most of the class room is just small amount of student are writing down but most of them are not. My suggestion is if we use blue pass instead of planner will work well because student won't be able to come classroom without blue pass. Students can't cheat on it because teachers are hold on to the passes.

In this pretest essay, Soe did not effectively use language as a tool to construe any of the three overarching meanings in the persuasive argument essay genre. To Present Content and Knowledge, Soe employed the modal *should* and the consequential marker *because* to attempt to construct a thesis statement but presented his first argument instead. Soe did not employ nominal structures to clearly present any arguments. As well, he did not include a counter-argument.

Rather than achieving the Projection of an Authoritative Stance, Soe employed a highly spoken-language style in the development of his pretest essay. For example, he began with *my viewpoint*, included statements such as, *I know* and *I have seen*, and ended with *my suggestion*.

Soe employed very few modals or markers of consequential meanings, thereby failing to build an explicit point of view. Furthermore, Soe's pretest essay lacked the employment of evaluative language to authoritatively construct clear arguments.

Finally, Soe also failed to Construct a Well-Organized text by presenting his entire essay in one paragraph without fully developing an argument.

Soe wrote the following posttest essay:

School new lunch detention policy must be fair for any students. Having new policy will provide students in many different good ways. First, having lunch detention policy will lead to educational growth. Also lunch detention policy will lead to better timming [timing] for student. Finally having lunch detention policy will lead to economic growth.
Providing lunch detention policy will lead to education growth. For instance students will make to class on time which will give them more time on studies. When they have more time, they must learned more. When they learned more they will graduate from high school and attend college.
Producing lunch detention policy will lead students better timming [timing] in future. For example when students following time in high school there is no big deal for them in college.
Having lunch detention policy will lead to economic growth. For instance students have more learning and will be able to study more. When they study more they will educated. Since they educated they will produce businesses. When there is more businesses exists it will lead to economic growth.
Providing lunch detention policy will give more educated teens. Also it will lead for teens to be able to time on their studies to improve their education. Finally lunch detention policy will lead to economic growth.

In this posttest essay about lunch detention, Soe demonstrated the appropriation of several linguistic resources that function to construe meanings in this genre. To Present Content and Knowledge, Soe made an effort to employ nominalization (e.g., *having new policy*), a modal

of *high possibility* (e.g., *will*), and consequential markers (e.g., *provide* and *in many different good ways*) to propose a position and set up the presentation of his arguments.

In the introductory paragraph, Soe then presented the three arguments to be developed, including the interesting argument that *having lunch detention policy will lead to economic growth*.

Soe more effectively achieved the Projection of an Authoritative Stance in the posttest essay as well. Soe combined the use of the modal *will* the use of consequential markers in an effort to build an explicit point of view throughout the essay. For instance, to construct possibility and suggest outcomes of the lunch detention policy, Soe selected language choices such as, *students will make to class on time*, and *students have more learning and will be able to study more*.

In the posttest essay, Soe also included a fair amount of evaluative language to convey his opinion without the use of *I think* or *My viewpoint is*. Soe's use of evaluative language included *good ways*, *learn more*, *graduate from high school*, *attend college*, and *educated teens*.

Finally, Soe more successfully employed the language resources that function to Construct an Organized Text" in his posttest essay. First and foremost, he presented arguments in an introduction, developed these arguments in body paragraphs, and reiterated them in a conclusion.

Soe also exhibited improved control over the use of nominal structures, conjunctive links, and thematic progression to build a chain of reasoning. This control was evident in the second paragraph. Soe used a nominal structure, modal, and causal link to introduce an argument in the first sentence of the second paragraph, *Providing lunch detention policy will lead to education growth*.

Soe began to construct a chain of reasoning by choosing the conjunction *for instance* to present one way that the lunch detention policy would lead to educational growth. That is, he claimed that this policy would lead students to *make to class on time*. Soe then employed the resource of clause combining to elaborate by continuing, *which will give them more time on studies*.

At this point, Soe appropriated the use of thematic progression by making *when they have more time* as the point of departure in the next sentence. Soe conveyed the result of having more time to study as *they must learned more*. In the final sentence of this paragraph, Soe employed thematic progression again (e.g., *when they learned more*) to conclude this chain of reasoning by stating the result of learning more as *they will graduate from high school and attend college*.

9.2.8 Summary of functional linguistic analyses

The functional linguistic analyses of the six focal students' pretest and posttest essays portrayed the types of changes that occurred from pretest to posttest in students' appropriation and more effective employment of the linguistic resources that function to construe the Presentation of Content and Knowledge, the Projection of an Authoritative Stance, and the Construction of a Well-Organized Text in the persuasive argument essay genre.

As Table 15 above indicated, this increased appropriation and effective use of these linguistic resources that function to construe the three overarching meanings also occurred in varying degrees for the other fourteen student participants.

It is notable that a shift occurred from pretest to posttest in the Projection of an Authoritative Stance given that the posttest prompt was related to students' everyday experience

in school. That is, the posttest prompt directed students to persuade the school principal that the school's lunch detention policy was either fair or unfair to students.

Such a prompt, situated in the context of students' personal and immediate experience, may have naturally led to the development of arguments from a personal point of view. Yet, the posttest essays suggest that students may have gained awareness that language resources can be employed to express oneself in a more authoritative way even when the topic is connected to one's personal experience.

In summary, although none of the 20 student participants achieved "mastery" of the linguistic resources that function to present content authoritatively in a highly coherent persuasive text, the functional linguistic analyses of the pretest and posttest essays suggested that these students' may have developed increased control over these linguistic resources as a result of participation in the *Reading to Learn* lessons.

Finally, these analyses illuminated the differences in students' appropriation and effective use of the fourteen linguistic resources delineated on the Performance Criteria and Assessment Tool. That is, the above functional linguistic analyses exemplified the significant improvement in the 20 student participants' appropriation and effective use of the linguistic resources that function to construe meanings in a persuasive argument essay that were indicated by the statistical results.

9.3 RESEARCH QUESTION TWO: HOW DID THE ADOLESCENT ELLS IN THIS INVESTIGATION PERCEIVE THE EFFECT OF THE *READING TO LEARN* INSTRUCTIONAL APPROACH ON THEIR WRITING DEVELOPMENT?

The second research question addressed how adolescent ELLs perceived the effect of the genre-based *Reading to Learn* instructional approach on their writing development. To investigate this question, the 20 student participants completed a Post-Instructional Unit Survey (see Appendix E) designed to assess their perception about whether their ability to write a persuasive argument essay had changed through participation in the instructional intervention. As well, the final open-ended question on the survey allowed the 20 student participants to use their own words to explain any change that may have occurred in their writing ability.

In addition to the Post-Instructional Unit Survey completed by all 20 student participants, the six focal students participated in follow-up interviews (see Appendix G) after the instructional intervention was completed. During the follow-up interviews, all six students were presented with a copy of their pretest and posttest essays as well as their independently-written amnesty essays.

These six students were asked a series of questions to investigate their perceptions about any differences in their competency to write persuasive argument essays that may have occurred after participation in the instructional intervention. In addition, students were asked to explain these perceptions.

The findings from the Post-Instructional Unit Surveys and the Follow-Up Interviews are presented in the following sections.

9.3.1 Findings from the post-instructional unit survey

The five questions that comprised the Post-Instructional Unit Survey were:

1. In your own words, explain what a persuasive essay is and what it is supposed to do.
2. To what degree did you have experience with writing persuasive essays in English before this instructional unit?
3. Compared with the beginning of the instructional unit, to what degree do you think that you have improved your ability to write a persuasive essay in English?
4. Compared with the beginning of the instructional unit, to what degree do you think that you have changed your way of thinking about writing persuasive essays in English?
5. How and why do you think you have changed in the way that you did?

Questions two, three, and four were answered using a Likert Scale (e.g., 1 = not at all; 2 = a little; 3 = somewhat; and 4 = a lot). Results for the twenty student participants' responses to these three questions are reported in Table 15 below:

Table 15. Results from Post-Instructional Unit Survey Questions Two, Three, and Four

Question	“1” Not at all	“2” a little	“3” somewhat	“4” a lot	Total Responses
How much prior experience with writing persuasive essays in English did you have before this instructional unit?	7	11	1	1	20
Compared with the beginning of the instructional unit, how much do you think that you have improved your ability to write a persuasive essay in English?	0	2	7	11	20
Compared with the beginning of the instructional unit, how much do you think that you have changed your way of thinking about writing persuasive essays in English?	0	0	9	11	20

These results indicated that 18 out of the 20 student participants perceived their experience with writing persuasive essays in English before the *Reading to Learn* lessons as minimal. Eighteen of the 20 participants perceived that their ability to write a persuasive essay in English had improved either “somewhat” or “a lot” during the instructional intervention. Finally, all 20 participants indicated that their way of thinking about writing persuasive essays in English had also changed “somewhat” or “a lot” throughout the course of the instructional intervention.

These results suggest that at least 18 of the 20 student participants perceived that participation in the *Reading to Learn* lessons had led to an improvement in their ability to write a persuasive essay in English. As well, all 20 student participants acknowledged a change in the way that they thought about writing persuasive essays in English after participating in these lessons.

To illustrate the kind of change in thinking that may have occurred for these student participants after participation in the instructional intervention, I present the six focal students’ responses to the open-ended question five (e.g., “How and why do you think you have changed in the way that you did?”) on the Post-Instructional Unit Survey. I present these responses in Table 16 below.

Table 16. Focal Students’ Responses to Question Five on Post-Instructional Unit Survey

Focal Student	Response to Post-Instructional Unit Survey Question 5
Tika	Without using “I,” build strong argument, develop argument, causal link and made nominalization.
Roshan	I changed the way of writing persuasive essay by writing in impersonal way and I improve a lot in the writing. I also learn about the tools in the persuasive essay.
Soe	I have changed the way that I did because I learned many instruction in this unit to write better persuasive essay.
Htoo	I have learn how to choose a tools that work for my writing. I think I change in the way I did because I see my progress through this Unit.
Asha	My ways of thinking about writing persuasive essays have changed a lot, because now I am able to write an impersonal, authoritative essay and my word choices.
Pilar	I have change a lot in my way to think when I’m writing, because I have learn that you don’t write the way you talk. This for me is a very important key, because after you realize that, you think harder and use more academic words.

These responses to question five indicated that these six focal students perceived that the *Reading to Learn* lessons had positively influenced their thinking about writing persuasive essays in English. The focal students’ responses to question five were similar to other student participants’ explanations for how and why their thinking about writing persuasive essays may have changed during the instructional unit.

For example, another student wrote, “At first I used to write an essay on a personal way, but now I can write the same idea in different methods by using many tools.” Similarly, another student wrote, “Compared with the beginning of the instructional unit, I have changed a lot on writing persuasive essay because now I know how to use tools like nominalization, connector and modal and use vocabulary.” Another student explained, “I improve my English and I use little of modals or word choice in my essay that make my essay better.”

In summary, the 20 student participants’ responses on the Post-Instructional Unit Survey indicated their perception that participation in the *Reading to Learn* lessons may have both

improved their ability to write a persuasive essay and influenced their thinking about writing persuasive essays in a positive way.

These findings were corroborated by the six focal students' responses to the Follow-Up Interview questions which are presented in the following section.

9.3.2 Focal students' responses to follow-up interview

Using the follow-up interview protocol tool, individual tape-recorded follow-up interviews with the six focal students were conducted by a fellow doctoral student in the school's library. Each interview included the following interactions which afforded these the opportunity individually explain: (1) whether and how their writing had improved from the pretest to the posttest persuasive essay; (2) exactly what they had done to present knowledge, convey a point of view, and create an organized text in their independently written persuasive argument essays about amnesty; (3) how successful they found the reading and writing unit to be in helping them to understand the structure of a well-written persuasive essay as well as the language tools that can be used to write a well-written persuasive essay; and (4) how successful they perceived the reading and writing unit to be in helping them to learn to write a well-written persuasive essay.

9.3.2.1 Focal students' comparisons of pretest/posttest essays

During the first part of the follow-up interview, each focal student was asked to look at a copy of his or her pretest essay about student planners and compare it to his or her posttest essay about lunch detention. Each student was then asked to explain whether his or her writing improved and, if so, exactly what he or she had done to improve on the posttest essay. Students' responses are summarized and presented in Table 17 below.

Table 17. Focal Students’ Comparisons of Pretest to Posttest Essays

Focal Student	Explanation for Improvements between Pretest and Posttest
Tika	<p>I think my second essay is a little bit improved . . . I used more <u>formal language</u> to make it better. And I used vocabulary words to persuade the reader.</p> <p>First, I said my <u>thesis statement</u> and I <i>took a position</i>. Second, I <u>write the arguments</u> that I am going to be talking about and third, I <u>develop it</u> in each paragraph. In the conclusion, I <u>state it again</u>.</p>
Roshan	<p>My essay improved a lot. First on the pretest, I just wrote what I think and how I feel. On the posttest, I know how to use the <u>language tools</u> for a persuasive essay like <u>modal, nominalization</u>. I improve a lot on my vocabulary, I don’t have to repeat the same word again and again.</p> <p>I used <u>counter-argument</u>, like what people think against the argument. And also, in a persuasive, you have to write the argument and you gotta explain the argument. On posttest I used <u>nominalization</u>, like a ton of nouns, like <u>actions like a noun</u>.</p>
Soe	<p>On the first essay, I had no idea how to write a persuasive essay. I just write like basic paragraph to say about the planners.</p> <p>The second one, I learned about persuasive essay, so I have idea about how to write persuasive essay. I made <u>thesis statement</u> and <u>introduce arguments</u> and write about the arguments in each separate paragraph.</p>
Htoo	<p>I’m really improving. In the pretest, I wrote it in a personal way. In the posttest, I used the tool that she have taught us like <u>nominalization</u>, <u>modal</u>, and <u>causal link</u>.</p> <p>I used nominalization and I use <u>modal to show how possible</u>. I used authoritative way. I write in <u>authoritative way</u>.</p>
Asha	<p>The first essay I didn’t know anything about how to write a persuasive non-fiction essay and the tools to use. But in the second essay, I learned to <u>use the tools</u> and how to write <u>impersonal and authoritative</u> ways. Like right here in this essay (e.g., pretest), I used a lot of “I’s” so that is personal but in second essay I know of made it an impersonal essay and used some of the tools that I learned.</p> <p>As you can see right here (e.g., posttest), I used a lot of <u>nominalization</u> and developed almost all of them (e.g., the arguments). Then I tried to make a <u>chain of reasoning</u> and tried to connect all of them, tried to <u>connect the ideas together</u> and not be off-topic.</p>
Pilar	<p>I think my writing has improved a lot. I learned a lot of the tools, <u>linguistic tools, like modals and nominalization</u>.</p> <p>I put more linguistic tools. I used more <u>academic language</u> and I developed my essay (e.g., posttest) pretty well. I think academic language is when you use like a more <u>formal way</u> to express yourself. For example, here I said, “Lunch detention will improve students’ respect towards their teachers and classmates.” I didn’t say like, “Lunch detention is good idea cause students will respect their teachers.”</p>

These responses indicated that the six focal students were able to articulate their perceptions about the ways in which their persuasive writing had improved between the pretest and posttest. Moreover, these students incorporated metalanguage about the linguistic features of well-written persuasive essays into their responses (e.g., *thesis statement*, *modal*, *nominalization*, *causal link*, *authoritative way*, *chain of reasoning*). These examples and others are underlined in Table 17 above.

9.3.2.2 Focal students' perceptions of independently written amnesty essays

On the second part of the follow-up interviews, the six focal students were asked to look at and answer a series of questions about their independently written essay. The interviewer invited each student to explain exactly what he or she had done to present knowledge about amnesty, to convey a point of view, and to organize the essay. As well, each student was asked whether he or she had included a counter-argument in the essay and, as the writer, what he or she had done to state the counter-argument.

The six focal students' responses to these questions were similar to those that students had given in response to the questions about the pretest and posttest essays. For example, Tika noted that, to present knowledge, she had included the results of a job survey to substantiate her claim that about five million undocumented immigrants held professional jobs in the United States.

Roshan noted that he had presented three specific arguments to present knowledge about amnesty. Soe explained that he had read various articles about amnesty and "took evidence from there and make it in my own words." Asha stated that she "gave reasons and logical evidence"

in order to present knowledge about amnesty, and Pilar noted that she had presented three arguments and “defended” them.

In response to the question about what he or she had done as the writer to convey his or her stance or point of view, Roshan did not answer with specifics. He stated, “I make my stance stronger so the reader comes to my side, so he thinks it’s (e.g., amnesty) is the right thing to do.”

Soe initially expressed confusion about this question. After the interviewer restated the question as, “So how did you talk about your opinion, what you think should be done about undocumented immigrants,” Soe replied, “I wrote how undocumented immigrants can make America better.”

Htoo replied that in order to convey his stance he had shared “good things about undocumented immigrants.” He reiterated, “I just presented good things about them. Basically just a lot of good things” and gave a direct example from his amnesty essay by pointing out that he had written “For instance, United States will be higher quality place to live with variety of cultures with different thinking.”

Asha, who wrote a persuasive argument essay against amnesty, gave a more specific reply to the question of what she had done as a writer to convey her stance. She stated, “I used some adverbs, like instead of putting myself in a personal way, I kind of used evaluative words, evaluative language and adverbs to express what I think is right.”

Asha illustrated her response with an example from her text. She stated, “Right here in the first sentence I said, ‘Illegal aliens who purposefully . . .’ which is, that means that I really think they did it on purpose . . . ‘broke the law must not be granted amnesty.’” Asha continued, “Right here in the next sentence, I use ‘Amnesty must certainly not be awarded for many reasons.’”

In response to the third question about writing a well-organized amnesty essay, the six focal students provided specific answers. For instance, Tika noted that she “took a position, wrote three arguments and develop them, then the conclusion to write the thesis statement again.”

Roshan remarked that he created a chain of reasoning and explained, “Like if this will happen, then this will happen. Like build an idea from first to last to convince the reader to be on my side.” Soe stated, “I tried to write, like whoever reads this essay, not to lose. I think I made a chain of reasoning.”

Htoo provided an elaborate response to the way that he had achieved a well-organized text. He said:

First, I put a thesis statement. Then maybe the audience might not know amnesty, so I explain what amnesty mean. Then, I explain the three argument that I am going to write in the next three paragraphs (names all three arguments). So, I put them in order and lastly I restate in a different way my arguments.

Equally, Pilar elaborated what a writer does to construct an organized text. She stated:

Well, I learned that to write a persuasive essay you have like a pattern, or a map. So, first you introduce if you are for or against the topic and then you explain a little bit about it because not everyone knows what you are talking about maybe. Then you state your arguments. Then throughout the essay you develop your arguments, you explain more about them. And if you can, I think it’s very important to introduce other voices. Then conclude it and restate your three arguments.

Finally, the six focal students responded to the questions, “Did you include a counter-argument in this essay?” and “If so, what did you do as a writer to state a counter-argument?” Tika responded that she had included one counter-argument and then elaborated, “I say that is a bad idea. I say why they were wrong, the reason they were wrong.”

Roshan also noted that he had introduced a counter-argument. He stated, “I introduce the people voice, like what people think about amnesty. Some people think that undocumented

immigrants doesn't follow law, but I think that's wrong. They are new to the United States . . . they will follow the law, that's my counter-argument."

Soe remarked that he had not stated a counter-argument. Htoo, however, specifically explained his counter-argument. He said, "I wrote some people, like other voices are here. Like some people believe or some people think." Htoo continued, "I said believe in here like, 'Some people believe allowing undocumented immigrants to remain in U.S. increase disagreements and problems.'" Htoo concluded, "But I refuted and said that in reality it will bring ideas and beliefs to U.S. and will create a better society."

Asha also pointed out her specific counter-argument. She noted that in her second paragraph she had written that "many business owners and policymakers think that allowing illegal workers to stay legally will increase the U.S. economy and wages of the U.S. citizen workers." She explained further by stating, "So, then I said 'on the contrary,' . . . I refuted, saying that millions of citizens are losing their jobs or can't find one because it was over-filled with illegal immigrants."

Lastly, Pilar also noted that she had introduced the counter-argument that the "con-amnesty" people claim that the undocumented immigrants are taking advantage of services that they don't even pay for. To explain how she had refuted the counter-argument as the writer, Pilar said, "I, like, first when I introduced my counter-argument I put like very negative. Then when I did the contrary of the counter-argument, I put it like really positive. That way, people can see the difference."

The six focal students' responses to the above questions on this second part of the follow-up interview revealed that these students were able to articulate what they had done as writers to create the three types of meanings in a persuasive argument essay (e.g., presentation of content,

projection of an authoritative stance, and construction of a well-organized text). In addition, these responses corroborated the answers that these students had given in response to the questions about what they had done as writers to make improvements from the pretest/posttest persuasive essays.

Although these responses varied in specificity and the use of metalanguage to describe the linguistic resources employed in the independently-written amnesty essays, these students' explanations and elaborations suggested a growing awareness of the way that language functions as a tool to simultaneously create the three meaning types in a persuasive argument essay.

9.3.2.3 Focal students' responses about the success of the instructional unit

On the third and final part of the follow-up interview, the six focal students were asked to respond to three questions about how successful they had perceived the *Reading to Learn* instructional unit to be on three levels.

First, students assessed how successful the reading and writing unit was in helping them to understand the structure of a well-written persuasive essay. Second, students evaluated the success of this instructional unit in helping them to understand the language tools that a writer can use to construct a well-written persuasive essay. Finally, students explained their perception about the overall success of the instructional unit in helping them to learn to write a well-written persuasive essay.

Specifically, the students were asked the following questions:

How successful do you think this reading and writing unit was in helping you to understand the structure of well-written persuasive essays? Please explain your thinking.

How successful do you think this reading and writing unit was in helping you to understand the language tools that you can use to write a well-written persuasive essay? Please explain your thinking.

How successful do you think this reading and writing unit was in helping you to learn to write a well-written persuasive essay? Please explain your thinking.

The six focal students' responses to these questions are summarized and presented in Table 18 below.

Table 18. Focal Students' Perceptions about the Success of the Instructional Unit

Focal Student	Perceptions about Success of Instructional Unit
Tika	<p>I think on a range, on a scale from one to ten, I think a seven. I tried my best to write.</p> <p>Before, I never heard of nominalization. And I can see that using nominalization in my sentence can make it, like shorter.</p> <p>I would give 10. I learned a lot in this short period of time.</p>
Roshan	<p>Before, like previous, I knew nothing of persuasive essays. Now I'm able to write a persuasive essay.</p> <p>I learned mostly the tools they use in the persuasive essay. Like using different kinds of modals. Like writing very persuasively, like convincing the reader. You have to make your essay impersonal, not to use I or we.</p> <p>Very successful. I think when I took the posttest the question say 'What is the purpose of this essay?' The purpose of the essay is to convince the reader what the writer think. In the posttest I improved a lot. I learned so much things.</p>
Soe	<p>Before I started this unit, I totally don't know about a persuasive essay. Afterwards, she showed us a couple persuasive essay and we read together and then she ask us to write. As we go on, I had ideas of how to write persuasive essay.</p> <p>Before, I didn't know too much language tools. I learned those terms like with color coding, which ones are causal link, nominalizations, so things like that.</p> <p>Before I learned it, on a scale from 1 to 10, I was about a 2 or 3. Right now, I guess I improved a lot, I'm like a 7 or 8.</p>

Focal Student	Perceptions about Success of Instructional Unit
Htoo	<p>It was very good. Very excellent. I could see that I highly improved. Like the progress from the pretest to posttest, I could see I'm using synonym words, I'm not using the same word over and over again. I used the tools that she taught us like nominalizations and modal.</p> <p>It was very successful because I could see that I have like modality, modals, like show how sure I am. Like '<i>will</i>' is one of them.</p> <p>It was very successful, like I said before. I wrote in authoritative way, like impersonal. In the first one, I used mostly 'I think,' and I'm talking about my opinion instead of writing in impersonal and authoritative way.</p>
Asha	<p>It's very successful because I have learned a lot from writing these essays. Not just writing a persuasive essay, but writing in like any genre of writing. Like, this essay made me think of writing in more authoritative way in any kind of essay and reading them give me ways to increase, to improve how my writing supposed to be and, that's it.</p> <p>Well, it was hard to use it (e.g., language tools). Some of them it was really hard, especially trying to use evaluative language. It was really hard because my vocabulary isn't that good so it was hard to use words that I didn't know or are really academic words. They are really hard to use. But I tried to use them if it was against or for something. And I didn't think writing could be so hard . . . so this made me think that if you really want the readers to believe you and you really want to get the readers listening, then you will have to make your writing really academic and think of the reader and how the reader will react.</p> <p>It was really successful because I didn't know anything about how to write a persuasive essay and that people write them for a purpose, so it was really good. The unit just taught me a lot more writing and how my writing is supposed to be when I go to college.</p>
Pilar	<p>It was very, very important because I have learned words that I didn't know, and I have learned how to talk about what I think and say my point of view without saying, 'I think that . . .' and be more academic and more persuasive.</p> <p>It was very, very helpful because when I first did the persuasive essay, I was like 'I don't even know what to do, I'm gonna do what I think is right.' And with the linguistic tools I have a pattern, like I have something to follow and that way it's easier cause when you're on your own, you don't even know where to start.</p> <p>Ok, so one thing is it helps me to follow a structure. Like now I know every step to make a persuasive essay and how I can use academic English and how I can explain my points of view and other's points of view without talking in first person.</p>

9.3.3 Summary of findings from research question two

The findings from the Post-Instructional Unit Survey suggested that the majority of the 20 student participants perceived that participation in the *Reading to Learn* instructional unit may have positively affected their writing development.

This perception was supported by the 20 student participants' responses to the three survey questions measured on a Likert scale as well as by the six focal students' explanations about how and why their way of thinking about writing persuasive argument essays may have changed after participation in the *Reading to Learn* lessons.

Relatedly, the positive perceptions about the *Reading to Learn* lessons and their potential effect on students' ability to write persuasive essays in English were corroborated by the six focal students' extended responses to the open-ended questions on the follow-up interviews.

Specifically, these extensive responses indicated that the six focal students perceived the instructional unit to be useful and successful in building their awareness of the linguistic resources that function to construe academically-valued persuasive argument essays.

In turn, the six focal students' follow-up interview responses suggested that these student participants perceived that this growing awareness of the way that language resources could be employed to create three overarching meanings in this genre was useful in the writing of persuasive argument essays.

**9.4 RESEARCH QUESTION THREE: WHAT ARE THE
UNIQUE CHALLENGES OF DEVELOPING AND
IMPLEMENTING THE GENRE-BASED *READING TO LEARN*
INSTRUCTIONAL APPROACH WITH PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOL
ELLS IN THE ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE
CLASSROOM?**

To address this research question, I first situate the selection of the *Reading to Learn* framework as the instructional approach that informed the development of the instructional intervention conducted in this study. I then describe the unique challenges of developing the *Reading to Learn* lessons for implementation in a secondary ESL classroom with 20 diverse adolescent ELLs. Finally, I describe the unique challenges of implementing this instructional approach in an urban public high school ESL context.

These descriptions were informed by the unit lesson plans, the teacher's reflections on these lessons, the videotaped segments of actual instructional episodes, and the log of institutional factors that shaped the instructional context throughout the instructional intervention.

In order to frame the description of the challenges of developing this genre-based instructional intervention, I provide a brief background explanation for the decision to design this research based on the *Reading to Learn* framework in the following section.

9.4.1 The decision to design an instructional intervention based on the *Reading to Learn* approach

Undoubtedly, my own level of expertise with designing genre pedagogy informed by a functional linguistic perspective was the most significant challenge in developing the daily lessons in the various stages of the *Reading to Learn* framework throughout the instructional intervention.

As Martin and Rose (2005) acknowledged, planned efforts to introduce teachers to a metalanguage for deconstructing texts and embed functional grammar into school curricula had met with mixed success. In fact, this work with teachers in schools in Australia led to a “reconsideration of the ways that Halliday’s functional language model is applied to analysis and teaching of pedagogic texts” (Martin & Rose, 2005, p. 255).

Thus, the *Reading to Learn* framework was developed as a result of this expansion of genre pedagogy. As an experienced teacher of adolescent ELLs, I was intrigued by Martin and Rose’s (2005) claim that the genre-based *Reading to Learn* framework could be applied to designing instruction that supported all students, including those for whom English was not the first language, to read challenging, grade-level texts and to apply what was learned through reading to writing in a school-valued way.

Moreover, prior to learning about the *Reading to Learn* framework, I had spent nearly two years in largely self-directed study of functional grammar, grounded in Halliday’s (1994) theory of systemic functional linguistics. Encountering this social semiotic theory of language learning was transformative for me as a teacher and a researcher. I was inspired by the commitment of systemic functional linguists’ to create educational social justice through decades of careful research that resulted in a theoretically-based model of literacy pedagogy that aimed to

support all students in the development of literacy practices that afforded access to educational and career opportunities.

Thorough reading and studying of the functional linguistic research led me to the *Reading to Learn* framework. Martin and Rose (2005) and Rose (2005, 2006) provided descriptions of the theoretical bases and classroom applications of this genre pedagogy. These descriptions included explanations of the purpose of each stage (e.g., Text Deconstruction, Joint Construction, and Individual Construction) as well as exemplars of the instructional tasks and talk in each stage of this pedagogical cycle.

As an ESL teacher for a group of largely older adolescent refugee ELLs with interrupted formal schooling backgrounds and underdeveloped academic literacy practices, I found the *Reading to Learn* framework to be a promising instructional approach. Further encouraged by Martin and Rose's (2005) claim that the *Reading to Learn* approach could be adapted to any instructional context by teachers with varying degrees of expertise in functional grammar, I closely followed this framework to develop the current instructional intervention.

I describe the challenges of developing and implementing the *Reading to Learn* lessons in the following section.

9.4.2 Challenges of developing the *Reading to Learn* lessons

Not having ever taught with a focus on genre as informed by a theory of language, I faced the challenge of designing the *Reading to Learn* lessons from a new perspective. In addition to the task of creating theoretically informed instruction appropriate to the instructional context, I also needed to develop the actual instructional materials for use in the daily lessons.

After deciding upon the theme of whether amnesty should be granted to undocumented immigrants, selected for its cultural relevance and potential appeal to adolescent ELLs, I made a decision to develop the lessons around the reading and writing of persuasive argument essays. I chose this genre based on the fact that the student participants lacked experience with writing academically-valued persuasive texts in which arguments were presented and developed.

Building a foundation for writing a persuasive argument that would meet institutional academic expectations would serve as preparation for post-secondary studies. Thus, the first challenge was to create model persuasive texts both for and against amnesty that could be used for linguistic analysis of the language resources that functioned to create the three overarching meanings in the persuasive argument essay genre.

These model texts were central to the development of the lessons in the Preparing to Read and Detailed Reading stages of the *Reading to Learn* framework (Martin & Rose, 2005; Rose, 2005, 2006). To create the model persuasive texts, I followed Schleppegrell's (2006) detailed description of the linguistic resources that create ideational (e.g., Presentation of Content and Knowledge), interpersonal (e.g., Projection of an Authoritative Stance), and textual (e.g., Construction of a Well-Organized Text) meanings in the persuasive argument essay genre.

Specifically, I employed these salient linguistic resources in the construction of these model texts in a way that would provide accessibility for identifying and discussing these language resources with students. That is, I followed the typical schematic structure of the persuasive argument essay genre and incorporated several uses of each language resource (e.g., nominalization, modality, evaluative language, causal links, etc.) that served to construe the three overarching meanings in this genre to write the two model texts.

Once the model persuasive argument essays were written, the next challenge was to develop the visual representations that would support the introduction of a new metalanguage for discussing these linguistic resources with students. As Rose and Martin (2012) noted, “Teachers have a double job with metalanguage: (i) applying what they know to selecting, analyzing, planning and assessing, and (ii) recontextualising what they know for discussion in the classroom” (Rose and Martin, 2012, p. 237).

Thus, I first developed the “Writing Academically-Valued Persuasive Essays” graphic organizer for presenting the concept of the three overarching meanings and the way that an author’s language choices functioned as “tools” to “build” these meanings in “student-friendly” terms. This graphic organizer also served to introduce the schematic structure and social purpose of the persuasive argument essay genre.

In addition to introducing the concepts of the three overarching meanings, the schematic structure, and the social purpose of the persuasive argument essay genre, I realized that I needed an instructional tool for naming the specific linguistic resources that function to construe each of these meanings in this genre. Thus, the next challenge was to develop the Performance Criteria and Assessment Tool.

As described in Chapter 3, I mapped the salient linguistic resources that functioned to construe each meaning onto the Performance Criteria and Assessment tool in a “rubric-like” way that would be familiar and useful to the students throughout the *Reading to Learn* lessons. That is, I listed the three meaning types in “student-friendly” language in the left hand column, the language resources that functioned to construe each meaning type in the center column next to the meaning labels, and the evaluation scale (e.g., from “1” for “Not Effectively Used” to “4” for “Very Effectively Used”) along the right side.

I developed all of these visual representations with careful alignment to the concepts of the schematic structure, overarching meanings, and specific linguistic resources of the persuasive argument essay genre. I realized that this purposeful alignment would be important in the introduction and reiteration of these salient notions with students throughout the *Reading to Learn* lessons. Thus, I kept this alignment at the core of instructional materials development.

I employed the above instructional tools in the Preparing to Read stage of the *Reading to Learn* framework as described in Chapter 5.

The next challenge in the development of the *Reading to Learn* lessons was to create a useful visual representation of the actual linguistic resources that would be noted, discussed, and practiced in iterative cycles throughout the lessons in the Detailed Reading stage. I created the Color Coding Key of Linguistic Language Tools as an instructional scaffold for introducing and discussing these tools and their function with students.

This simple color-coded key pictured a *tool box* at the top and listed the salient linguistic resources employed throughout the model persuasive argument essays: modals; nominalizations; positive and negative evaluative language; relational, mental, and verbal processes; causal links, synonyms, and adverbs.

In addition to these linguistic resources, I drew students' attention to the resources of conjunctions, thematic progression, and concession and refutation throughout the Detailed Reading lessons. Thus, the color-coded language resources were highlighted by using markers during the deconstruction of the model persuasive argument essays while other resources were noted in the margins of the essays.

Metaphorically, my goal was to recontextualize the linguistic resources that function to construe the three meanings as *language tools* that could be selected by an author of a text in this

genre as useful for certain purposes or “jobs.” That is, I aimed to support students to consider the various language resources as useful tools for presenting content, projecting an authoritative stance, and constructing a well-organized text.

Visually, the challenge was to create an instructional scaffold that supported the discussion around authorial choice of which tools to use and how to employ them. That is, I needed a visual representation of the way that these language tools functioned as a “constellation of resources” (Schleppegrell, 2006) to create meanings throughout a persuasive argument text.

The hands-on use of markers to color code these linguistic resources on the actual model texts during the Detailed Reading lessons served this purpose well. This color coding enabled students to “see” the language tools at “work.”

Another challenge in the development of the *Reading to Learn* lessons was the creation of additional instructional materials to afford students the opportunity to practice using the linguistic resources of focus. It was important to design instructional materials that provided commonsense explanations for the function of the linguistic tools as well as contextualized examples that were situated in students’ experience.

Thus, I designed instructional tasks for students to practice nominalizations and modals of possibility and necessity. I created other tasks for students to explore the way that language choices function to create an authoritative, impersonal stance as well as the way that thematic progression functions to build a chain of reasoning in an organized text.

These instructional tasks served to move students from listening, noticing, color coding, and discussing during lessons about the model texts to practicing the linguistic resources in other meaningful contexts with peers and individually for homework.

In addition to these instructional tools, I needed a tool that would allow students to easily self-assess their independently written persuasive argument essays about amnesty. Thus, I further recontextualized the Performance Criteria and Assessment tool into the more student-friendly Self-Assessment/Reflection Tool (see Appendix V).

This self-assessment tool named the three overarching meanings on the left side with the linguistic resources and their functions listed under the heading for each meaning in commonsense terms (e.g., “Nominalization is used to present the arguments to be developed”). On the right side, students rated their use of each language tool in their independently written persuasive argument essays using a scale ranging from “1” for “Not so good” to “4” for “Fantastic!”

9.4.3 Professional challenges of developing the *Reading to Learn* lessons

As previously noted, my own level of expertise in designing and applying genre pedagogy from a functional linguistic perspective represented an important challenge in developing and implementing the *Reading to Learn* lessons. Pointedly, “Genre pedagogy has evolved in partnership with teachers and teacher educators, in the context of continual professional learning programs” (Rose & Martin, 2012, p. 321).

However, I did not have the opportunity to engage in professional development or to interact with other educators using genre pedagogy during the development or implementation of the instructional intervention. Despite this lack of “formal” training in genre pedagogy, I felt confident that my doctoral studies, with an intensive emphasis on literacy instruction and

subsequent focus on functional grammar and genre pedagogy, had prepared me to apply the *Reading to Learn* framework to the design of the instructional intervention.

Complementing the knowledge I had acquired through the study of the theoretical frameworks and applied research of functional linguists that shaped the development of the genre-based *Reading to Learn* approach were 20 years of experience as a world language and English as a Second language teacher.

As Rose and Martin (2012) noted, the *Reading to Learn* methodology “only really makes sense to teachers when they deliver it in the classroom” (Rose & Martin, 2012, p. 321). Thus, I followed Martin and Rose’s (2005) and Rose’s (2005, 2006) procedures for developing and implementing the *Reading to Learn* instructional approach in a secondary ESL classroom in an urban public high school.

Implementing the lessons of the *Reading to Learn* framework posed its own set of challenges, particularly in the Detailed Reading stage. The most significant challenge was that, although I intellectually understood the central notion that language functions to construe meanings in predictable patterns in school-based genres, using the appropriate metalanguage to introduce and discuss this core concept in the classroom with adolescent ELLs was a new instructional approach for me.

To be specific, to be prepared to deliver instruction and perhaps as a result of my teacher/teacher leader workload, I initially found it necessary to script what I would say to introduce and discuss the language tools during the deconstruction of the pro-amnesty model persuasive argument essay. For example, I typed a script in a large, bold font and kept it next to the Elmo on the equipment cart at the front of the classroom.

Although I did not directly read from the script, I could glance at it to keep the lesson flowing smoothly and to be certain that I pointed out and explained the language resources as they appeared in the model text. I provide an example of the scripts that I prepared for these lessons below:

In this fourth sentence, the author lays out argument 1 that if the U.S. gives amnesty to UIs (e.g., undocumented immigrants), the U.S. economy will get stronger. Let's look back at the way the author uses language to make this argument. What words does the author use to say 'If the U.S. gives amnesty to UIs?' (Answer: Allowing UIs to become legal and stay in the U.S.). Let's underline all of those words. This is a very important language tool in this genre. It's called nominalization which just means turning a verb, or an action, into a giant noun, or an act.

Eventually, I was able to simply plan which language features to attend to and which meaning cues to provide without a full script. Nonetheless, these scripts provided an important initial scaffold for me as the teacher to deconstruct the first model text in an organized way that highlighted the language resources that I wanted the students to notice and discuss.

Another challenge in implementing the Detailed Reading model text deconstruction lessons was the length of the model texts as well as the linguistic complexity of some of the sentences. In a subsequent iteration of this instructional unit, I would use a shorter text. In fact, Rose and Martin (2012) highlighted the importance of using a short model text for the Detailed Reading lessons.

However, when I designed the instructional intervention, I did not yet know about Rose and Martin's (2012) *Learning to Write, Reading to Learn* book as it was only recently published. Thus, I followed the *Reading to Learn* framework as presented by Martin and Rose (2005) in a chapter in a three-volume series about discourse on language from a functional perspective as well as by Rose (2005, 2006) in a journal article and published public lecture.

My thinking around deconstructing two model persuasive argument essays, one for amnesty and one against, was that these text deconstruction lessons would afford students ample exposure to the way that an author may select and employ the language resources in various ways to simultaneously construe the three meanings in this genre. In particular, I predicted that the contrast in positive and negative evaluative language in the two model texts would support students in developing a fundamental understanding of the way this language resource functioned to authoritatively build the arguments and convey the author's stance in this genre.

From this standpoint, these lessons may have been productive in building students' awareness of and capacity to employ the language resources during the independent writing of their own persuasive argument essays in the Individual Construction stage as well as in the posttest essays. On the other hand, some students noticeably did not actively engage in the teacher-guided interactions and may have simply complied with the color coding of the linguistic resources as they were identified across several lessons of text deconstruction.

In addition to the length of the model texts, sentence-level complexity also posed a challenge in implementing the text deconstruction lessons. Although my intention was to build students' awareness of the usefulness of clause combining in academic-style writing and in building a chain of reasoning, I found that I had not yet "mastered" the metalanguage for explaining a sentence as a "*clause complex*" (Rose & Martin, 2012) of various clause types with various functions.

At the same time, however, I realized that it was not necessary to overwhelm students with "too much metalanguage." Therefore, I treated the lengthier clause complexes as an opportunity to highlight the differences between every day spoken language and academic

written language. Thus, it is possible that the “clause consternation” was only apparent to me as the teacher.

9.4.4 Institutional factors affecting the implementation of the instructional intervention

The institutional factors affecting the implementation of the instructional intervention included unanticipated interruptions to the regular school schedule that resulted in lost instructional time, end-of-the-school-year activities, particularly for seniors, and student absenteeism. In addition, there were two required ESL teacher in-service days during the instructional intervention, obligating me to be out of the classroom and to leave lessons for a substitute teacher.

During the six-week instructional intervention, unanticipated interruptions to instruction included an additional school closure day on the Friday before the Memorial Day weekend due to the fact that no snow days had been used during the 2011-12 school year. As well, a previously unannounced Community Service Day for seniors was scheduled for May 31st. Finally, all ninth through eleventh grade students were also obligated to participate in a third round of Scholastic Reading Inventory (SRI) testing during their English classes in May.

Of the 20 student participants in the instructional intervention, ten were graduating seniors. Activities for seniors that occurred during the instructional intervention included the Prom on May 24th. Although seniors were required to attend school on Prom day, those who attended were not fully interested in completing their independently written persuasive argument essays. Prior to the Prom, a College Signing Day event was held for the first time in this high school. On one May morning, the ten seniors who were participants in the instructional intervention were called out of ESL class during first period to attend practice for College Signing Day.

In mid-May, the schedule for seniors' final exams was announced indicating that these exams had to be administered to seniors between Monday, June 4th and Wednesday, June 6th, which would be the last full day of school for seniors. Thus, it was necessary to complete the post-instructional unit survey, posttest, and the follow-up interviews with the six focal students, three of whom were seniors, and leave enough time for the seniors to complete their final exam in ESL class.

Student absenteeism, a persistent problem in large urban high schools, intensified during the final weeks of the school year, particularly for seniors. During the 34 instructional days between April 16th and June 4th, the final day of the instructional intervention, only two seniors had no absences. One senior was absent once, three were absent twice, one was absent three times, one was absent four times, one was absent five times, and one was absent 12 times.

The attendance record was better for the ten underclassmen student participants during the instructional intervention. Three of these ten students had no absences, and another five had one absence each. However, the other two underclassmen each missed four of the 34 instructional days that comprised the instructional intervention.

In the final section, I discuss the implications of the findings presented in this chapter.

10.0 DISCUSSION

The findings from this instructional investigation, based on analyses of both quantitative and qualitative data, suggested that the *Reading to Learn* framework may be an effective instructional approach for supporting adolescent English language learners (ELLs) in making progress toward the development of advanced literacy practices.

The 20 adolescent ELL participants in this investigation were in many ways representative of adolescent ELLs across the United States. For example, these students came from various cultural and linguistic groups with varying levels of English language proficiency as measured by standardized testing. These tests were designed to assess both students' oral language proficiency and their academic language proficiency in English language arts, math, science, and social studies of grade 9 to 12 ELLs (e.g., WIDA ACCESS).

In addition, these 20 adolescent ELLs were between 15 and 21 years old and had spent a varying number of years in U.S. public schools. Furthermore, these students had diverse formal educational backgrounds as well as varied development of first language literacy practices. Despite this diversity in ages, cultural and language backgrounds, and levels of formal education, the unifying factor among these students was that none had yet learned to write in an academically-successful way.

This lack of success in writing in a school-valued way was evident in all 20 participants' pretest persuasive essays about whether students should be obligated to use school-issued student

agenda books. These essays reflected a dearth of appropriation of the linguistic resources that function to create academically-valued persuasive essays. In other words, the pretest essays of all 20 participants lacked the effective use, if used at all, of a thesis statement to present a position, nominalization to name the arguments to be developed, and modality and evaluative language to convey an impersonal, authoritative yet persuasive stance. In addition, the pretest essays lacked conjunctive links, other internal connectors, and referents that would have contributed to achieving textual coherence.

As indicated by the research of educational linguists (e.g., Christie, 2012; Rose & Martin, 2012; Schleppegrell, 2001, 2004), culturally and linguistically diverse adolescent ELLs often lack both understanding of and control over the linguistic resources that function to create meanings in school-based genres. In turn, this lack of mastery over academic literacy practices leads to the exclusion of these students from post-secondary and career opportunities.

The investigation of the use of the genre-based *Reading to Learn* framework in the current study as a potential pathway to the development of academic literacy practices among adolescent ELLs had promising results for the 20 participants. These positive outcomes are discussed in the following section.

10.1 POSITIVE OUTCOMES OF IMPLEMENTING THE *READING TO LEARN* APPROACH

The pretest and posttest persuasive argument essays written by the 20 participants in this investigation indicated that the *Reading to Learn* approach may have positively supported their capacity to write academically-valued persuasive argument essays. For example, all 20

participants shifted from writing in a more spoken-language style to making an effort to write in a more academically-valued way from pretest to posttest.

This shift from using everyday language to write to employing academic language features was evident in the appropriation of specific linguistic resources (e.g., modality, evaluative language, thematic progression, causal links) in the student participants' posttest essays. In addition, the posttest essays indicated progress in students' capacity to write an organized essay that followed a typical schematic structure for writing a persuasive argument essay that would be valued by teachers in classrooms and on more formal writing assessments. That is, the participants' posttest essays comprised an introduction with a thesis statement and presentation of arguments, three paragraphs in which each argument was developed, and a conclusion that reiterated the arguments and reconnected to the thesis statement.

As ample research suggests, this capacity to write successfully on formal assessments has enormous implications for adolescent ELLs' ability to access opportunities to engage in societal discourses of power (Colombi & Schleppegrell, 2002; Rose, 2006; Rose & Martin, 2012). In the current study, the marked difference from pretest to posttest in the adolescent ELL participants' appropriation of the linguistic resources that function to construe meanings in the school-based genre of the persuasive argument essay suggested that the genre-based *Reading to Learn* approach may have contributed to opening a window of access to academically-valued ways of writing for these students.

Specifically, the movement toward writing in a more academically-valued way that was evident in the 20 adolescent ELLs' posttest persuasive argument essays in this study may have been a result of the explicit instructional attention to the linguistic resources that are useful for creating meanings in this particular genre. This intentional instructional focus on the way that

language functions to construe meanings is a central tenet of the well-developed, theoretically-grounded *Reading to Learn* approach.

That is, following the *Reading to Learn* approach afforded me, the ESL teacher, with the opportunity to employ a principled approach to the design and implementation of lessons that supported this group of adolescent ELLs in both deconstructing and producing academically-valued persuasive argument essays. This principled approach involved thinking about the design of instructional reading and writing tasks from a functional linguistic perspective.

Specifically, this framework allowed me to plan the instructional unit around an important school-based genre, its social purpose, its schematic structure, and the way that the register variables of field (e.g., presenting content and knowledge), tenor (e.g., conveying an authoritative stance), and mode (e.g., constructing an organized text) simultaneously interact to construe meanings (e.g., ideational, interpersonal, and textual) in this genre. Thus, following the genre-based *Reading to Learn* framework provided me with a theoretically-informed structure for designing an instructional unit with the central focus of guiding students to use what they had learned through reading to write successfully in the persuasive argument essay genre.

Employing the *Reading to Learn* framework obligated me as the teacher to proceed through carefully planned, systematic steps to guide students to build knowledge of the field (e.g., the social purpose of the persuasive argument genre as well as the issue of amnesty), deconstruct model texts, co-construct a similar text, and individually write a text in this genre. Moving through the series of strategies delineated in the Preparing to Read, Detailed Reading, Joint Construction, and Individual Construction stages resulted in a sensible instructional unit that may have made the pathway for successfully writing an academic persuasive argument essay visible to the adolescent ELL participants.

The 20 student participants' post-instructional unit surveys as well as the follow-up interviews with the six focal students indicated that students reacted favorably to the guided interaction in the context of shared experience that comprised the instructional unit. For example, several students noted that the direct instruction regarding the specific linguistic resources that function to enable a writer to produce an academic persuasive argument essay provided them with new insights about *how* to write well in this genre.

Pointedly, all six focal students revealed that they had been previously unaware of the way that language resources such as nominalization, modality, causal links, and evaluative language can be employed to produce an authoritative, impersonal persuasive argument essay. This revelation by the focal students suggested that the *Reading to Learn* lessons may have also contributed to building students' Knowledge About Language (KAL) and creating a shared metalanguage for the discussion and production of texts in the secondary ESL classroom.

It is important to understand the ways that the usefulness of genre pedagogy for supporting the development of advanced literacy practices challenges, expands, and responds to other theories about and approaches to second language acquisition and literacy development. The ways in which genre pedagogy both integrates and extends other theories of second language learning are discussed in the next section.

10.1.1 Connections to other theories and approaches in second learning

A long-standing topic of debate among second language acquisition theorists has centered on whether explicit grammar instruction is useful in supporting learners' acquisition of a second or foreign language (Celce-Murcia, 2002). The argument against the usefulness of explicit grammar instruction mainly stems from Krashen's (1982) notion of *comprehensible input* or the

idea that extensive exposure to a target language (e.g., second language) is sufficient for promoting second-language acquisition (Celce-Murcia, 2002). That is, second language teaching has been widely influenced by the idea that students should be immersed in meaningful input with little emphasis on any focus on form in language teaching (Colombi & Schleppegrell, 2002; Scarcella, 1996, 2002).

English as a Second Language (ESL) instruction is distinct from second language instruction (e.g., foreign language instruction) given its designation as a core disciplinary area aligned to the literary and literacy standards of English Language Arts (ELA) throughout the U.S. Despite this alignment with ELA instruction rather than foreign language instruction, ESL instructional practices have been influenced by the widespread adoption of the practice of simply providing English language learners (ELLs) with extensive “comprehensible” experiences with the English language. Such practices have had the unintended consequence of failing to provide ELLs with effective instruction about the discourse patterns and academic language features of school-valued genres (Scarcella, 2002).

Yet, explicit instruction that focuses ELLs’ attention on the way that grammatical and lexical choices function to produce academically-successful texts may be the key to the development of advanced literacy practices (e.g., Christie, 2002, 2012; Celce-Murcia, 2002; Colombi & Schleppegrell, 2002; Scarcella, 2002). Given that ELLs are currently at great risk for school failure, the need for instruction that supports these students in developing academic language skills through scaffolded opportunities to learn the discourse features and grammatical and lexical resources of the genres and registers valued in schools is particularly acute (Colombi & Schleppegrell, 2002).

The functional grammar perspective embedded in genre-based pedagogical approaches such as the *Reading to Learn* framework may support ESL teachers in planning and implementing instruction that focuses on “the active role that grammatical and lexical choices play in realizing advanced literacy contexts” (Colombi & Schleppegrell, 2002, p. 10). In turn, many educational linguists have argued that opening ELLs’ and other learners’ access to advanced literacy texts and contexts is fundamental to empowering learners to engage in and challenge cultural discourses of power (e.g., Derewianka, 2003; Hasan, 1996; Rose & Martin, 2012; Veel, 2006).

In contrast to the position that genre pedagogy supports the design of scaffolded instruction that allows learners to deeply explore the way that academic language structures (e.g., grammatical and lexical choices) function to create meanings in cultural genres of power, poststructuralist critics have argued that such approaches may stifle creativity and encourage learners to reproduce texts that simply replicate the dominant culture (Martin, 1999; Veel 2006). This criticism is refuted by educational linguists who subscribe to the perspective that genre pedagogy is “a literacy pedagogy that can help learners gain access to educational discourses of the kind that they might otherwise not become familiar with in their daily life” (Colombi & Schleppegrell, 2002, p. 14).

For example, Christie (1999, 2002) argued that the features of advanced literacy must be explicitly taught in order to avoid an “invisible pedagogy” that disadvantages students who may not have access to such knowledge outside of school. Martin (1999) noted that “creativity depends on control of the genre, and that without the relevant discursive capital, students cannot produce highly valued ‘creative’ texts in narrative or any other genre” (Martin, 1999, p. 128). Relatedly, Hasan (1996) posited that genre-based pedagogy operates on the assumption that

students' chances of success in education are strengthened considerably when they learn to produce the types of texts that are valued in school contexts.

In short, proponents of genre-based approaches, such as the *Reading to Learn* framework, call for a recognition of genre pedagogy as an explicit approach to literacy instruction that provides all students with equal opportunities to learn to use language as a tool for reading and writing in academic genres for their own social, cultural, and political purposes (Colombi & Schelppegrell, 2002).

The findings of the present study suggested that the *Reading to Learn* approach may have strengthened the adolescent ELL participants' capacity to read and write in an academically more successful way in the persuasive argument essay genre. Despite the positive outcomes of the *Reading to Learn* lessons for these participants, employing this genre pedagogy in an urban public school secondary ESL classroom also presented significant challenges. These challenges are discussed in the following section.

10.2 CHALLENGES OF IMPLEMENTING THE *READING TO LEARN* APPROACH

One notable challenge in the current investigation was that the instructional unit had to be designed from start to finish by me, the teacher and researcher. In other words, the school district's curricular materials were not genre-based. Instead, the texts that comprised the unit on persuasive writing largely represented *macro-genres* (Rose & Martin, 2012) that combined informational and persuasive text features including a variety of graphs and charts.

More importantly, although the standard textbook was designed for high school students, the persuasive writing project at the end of the unit on persuasive writing required students to write from a personal point of view rather than in an authoritative, impersonal style. In addition, the model text and assessment rubric in the curricular materials lacked explicit instructional attention about *how* language resources function to construe meanings in the persuasive genre.

Current research (Christie, 2012; Schleppegrell, 2006; Fang & Wang, 2011) suggests that these types of instructional tasks and assessments leave *invisible* the way that the context of culture (e.g., genre) and context of situation (e.g., register variables) both shape and are shaped by the linguistic choices (e.g., from the lexicogrammar) that a student author may employ to produce academically-valued texts in school-based genres.

Thus, in order to adhere to the *Reading to Learn* framework by proceeding through each stage while keeping at the forefront the principal goal for students to use what they had learned through reading to write successfully in a school-based genre, it was necessary to design the instructional materials. Designing these materials required a significant amount of time and thought. To begin, I had to locate appropriate texts for secondary, intermediate level ELLs around the topic of amnesty in order to build knowledge of the field in the Preparing to Read stage. I also wrote the model texts (e.g., the for and against amnesty persuasive argument essays) around which the Detailed Reading lessons centered.

Next, I created the visual representations (e.g., the language toolbox and color-coded guide) that served to introduce students to the linguistic resources that function to construe the three overarching meanings in the persuasive argument essay genre. Furthermore, I designed a tool (e.g., the Performance Criteria and Assessment Tool) that provided students with a guide for using the language resources to convey each of the three meanings simultaneously while writing.

This tool also allowed me to both analyze and evaluate students' texts from a functional linguistic perspective. Finally, I designed the instructional tasks that afforded students the opportunity to practice the language resources of focus as they learned them.

The development of this instructional unit presupposed my own knowledge about how to apply the theory of systemic functional linguistics (SFL) in pedagogical practice. Rose and Martin (2012) claimed that the *Reading to Learn* framework provides teachers who may not possess deep knowledge about functional grammar with the tools to plan instruction that enables all students to comprehend challenging texts and successfully write in school-valued genres. At the same time, these researchers recognized the need to develop an extensive professional development program to support Australian classroom teachers in learning to employ the *Reading to Learn* approach through iterations of the teaching and learning cycle with their students.

However, this type of professional development to build teachers' capacity to plan and implement genre pedagogy is virtually non-existent in the United States. As an ESL teacher, developing the instructional unit employed in this investigation would not have been possible without my own intensive study of the SFL theory of language and extensive reading of the literature about genre pedagogy. Pointedly, even with a largely self-acquired background in functional linguistics, designing and implementing instruction from this new perspective was challenging. It is hard to imagine that typical secondary ESL teachers without such background knowledge would be able to successfully implement the *Reading to Learn* framework without formal training and continued support.

An emerging body of research has revealed the challenge that learning to teach from a functional linguistic lens represents for many classroom teachers (Aguirre-Munoz, et al., 2008;

Gebhard, et al., 2007; Gebhard, et al., 2008; Brisk & Zisselsberger, 2011). At the same time, this research has highlighted teachers' positive response to employing genre-based pedagogy in reading and writing instruction.

In the current investigation, use of the genre-based *Reading to Learn* approach appeared to support the 20 adolescent ELL participants in comprehending challenging texts and writing successfully in a school-valued genre. Yet, as the videotaped excerpts and focal students' writing exemplars revealed, these adolescent ELLs required extensive support in negotiating meaning in texts and in learning to write in a more academically-valued style.

Although the *Reading to Learn* framework afforded me with a principled way to provide this level of support, progressing through most of the teaching and learning cycle required nearly eight weeks of instructional time (e.g., almost one quarter of the school year). Moreover, in the current study, students did not complete independent research and subsequent independent text construction on a different topic from the topic of focus in the instructional intervention (e.g., amnesty).

Even though the adolescent ELL participants made significant improvements in their capacity to write academically-valued persuasive argument essays from pretest to posttest, it is unrealistic that eight weeks could be spent teaching students to read and write in one particular genre in a typical secondary ESL context in the United States. In addition to providing professional development to teachers, such an instructional focus would presuppose the development of curricular materials to support genre pedagogy, alignment of these materials to state content area standards for English language arts, and an embracing of genre pedagogy by school district leaders.

In addition to these more global concerns about the potential implementation of the *Reading to Learn* framework in the secondary ESL context in the United States, an important local concern emerged. Rose and Martin (2012) argued that the *Reading to Learn* approach fosters the engagement of all students in reading and writing processes in a way that is distinct from the prevalent classroom pattern of active engagement by only a handful of students. Yet, in this current investigation a pattern of active engagement and interaction by all students was not evident.

That is, although I planned a variety of instructional tasks and activities that tapped into the use of different modalities (e.g., reading, writing, listening, and speaking), and provided structured opportunities for student-to-student interaction in both pairs and small groups, consistent participation occurred among a relatively small number of students throughout the instructional unit. Although active student engagement was not a focus in this study, the videotaped segments did not reveal any readily apparent increases in student participation of the type that Rose and Martin (2012) claimed would occur.

In fact, implementing the *Reading to Learn* lessons entailed more teacher-focused instruction than is customary in a U.S. secondary ESL classroom. This increase in teacher-focused lessons contrasted with current ESL instructional practices (Calderon, 2007; Calderon & Minaya-Rowe, 2011; Walqui & van Lier, 2010; Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2008) that stipulate the importance of aiming for adolescent ELLs to be engaged in student-to-student interaction during approximately 95% of instructional time.

However, the central notion in genre pedagogy of guided interaction in the context of shared experience, grounded in a theory of language (e.g., systemic functional linguistics) and a theory of learning (e.g., sociocultural theory) may provide secondary ESL teachers with a more

theoretically-informed way of balancing the need for teacher guidance with the benefits of student-to-student interaction. In other words, as educational linguists have argued (e.g., Christie, 2012; Colombi & Schleppegrell, 2002; Rose & Martin, 2012), foregrounding the language demands of school-valued genres in a carefully scaffolded, visible way may support the development of advanced literacy practices for culturally and linguistically diverse students.

Additionally, as Rose and Martin (2012) suggested, it is through iterations of the teaching and learning cycle that students, particularly disenfranchised students who have experienced limited success in school, may begin to develop advanced literacy practices. Relatedly, Hyland (2002) argued that genre pedagogies “begin with the assumption that students’ current norms and literacy abilities are widely different from those that they need, and that clear, research-grounded genre descriptions are required to bridge this gap” (Hyland, 2002, p. 126).

In summary, this current investigation made a small contribution to the growing body of evidence that genre pedagogy may support culturally and linguistically diverse students in learning to successfully read and write academically-valued genres.

Notably, the 20 adolescent ELL participants made progress in gaining control over the linguistic resources that function to construe meanings in a key school-based genre, the persuasive argument essay. Although this instructional intervention only acquainted these students with the typical discourse features and language patterns of one type of text for conveying a persuasive argument, the changes in their writing from pretest to posttest suggested that these students developed an initial, fundamental control over writing in this genre that was not evident in their pretest writing.

Comparing the pretest and posttest essays of the six focal students, particularly of the three seniors (e.g., Pilar, Soe, and Tika), illuminated the way that genre-based pedagogical

approaches, such as the *Reading to Learn* framework, may support adolescent ELLs in developing the advanced literacy practices that can open the doors to post-secondary studies and career opportunities. In other words, it is hard to imagine that Pilar, Soe, and Tika could succeed in college-level coursework having only developed the capacity to write that they demonstrated in their pretest essays.

Yet, the unpreparedness of adolescent ELLs to transition to post-secondary studies is a stark reality in the United States today. As many educational linguists have argued (e.g., Colombi & Schleppegrell, 2002; Rose & Martin, 2012), rectifying this lack of access to societal discourses of power for culturally and linguistically diverse students is a matter of social justice. The incorporation of genre-based pedagogical approaches such as the *Reading to Learn* framework in secondary ESL contexts may be one promising way to allow adolescent ELLs to gain their footing on a pathway to academic success.

Although the current investigation suggested the potential usefulness of implementing the *Reading to Learn* framework with adolescent ELLs in a secondary ESL classroom, the study also had several limitations. These limitations are discussed in the final section of this chapter.

10.3 THE LIMITATIONS OF THE CURRENT INVESTIGATION

The most notable limitation of the current investigation is that I fulfilled the dual role of both teacher and researcher. However, I took various precautions to minimize the potential bias of myself as teacher and researcher.

First, I carefully designed the Performance Criteria and Assessment Tool used to analyze and evaluate students' pretest, posttest, and individually written persuasive argument essays

using criteria established through research (e.g., Schleppegrell, 2006). In this way, I was reasonably confident that I had a theoretically-informed, objective tool for analyzing and describing students' appropriation of the 14 highlighted linguistic resources that function to construe ideational, interpersonal, and textual meanings in the persuasive argument essay genre.

Although the Performance Criteria and Assessment Tool allowed me to analyze and describe the adolescent ELL participants' pretest and posttest essays from a functional linguistic perspective, measuring the effectiveness of students' appropriation of these linguistic resources was somewhat subjective. I measured effectiveness of students' appropriation of the linguistic resources through the use of a Likert scale that ranged from "not effectively used" to "very effectively used."

It is important to recall that the Performance Criteria and Assessment Tool served a dual purpose. First, this tool provided students with a guideline for understanding the way that specific linguistic resources simultaneously interact to construe the three overarching meanings. Secondly, students also used this tool as a scaffold when writing their individually-written persuasive argument essays for or against amnesty in the Individual Construction stage of the *Reading to Learn* lessons. Thus, the range from "not effectively used" to "very effectively used" was one that was accessible and understandable to students.

I took further steps to minimize the potential bias of being the evaluator of the 20 adolescent ELL participants' pretest and posttest essays by taking steps to establish interrater reliability. As described in chapter 3, Methodology, the two other raters and I evaluated five pretest and five posttest essays using the Performance Criteria and Assessment Tool and obtained a satisfactory level of agreement over the effectiveness of participants' appropriation of the 14 linguistic resources delineated on this assessment tool.

In addition, I employed an appropriate non-parametric statistical analysis (e.g., the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test) to analyze the changes in differences scores between all 20 participants' pretest and posttest essays. The statistically significant results of this analysis were corroborated by a Paired-Samples *t*-test.

It is important to recognize that other unique factors may have influenced students' control over the linguistic resources that function to create meanings in written persuasive argument essays. For example, I did not investigate the way that students' current English language proficiency levels (e.g., both oral proficiency and literacy) or prior educational backgrounds may have influenced their ability to write in an academic way. It should be noted that some of the participants had attended a U.S. public middle school and may have developed some skill in writing persuasive texts in English before high school. In addition, the refugee students had varying degrees of formal education in Thailand, Kenya, and Nepal.

I also did not measure the way that students' varying degrees of first language (e.g., L1) literacy may have influenced their writing in the present study. Some of the students had learned to read and write in their L1 while others had not. Furthermore, potential cross-linguistic influence from students' L1 was not accounted for in this current study. That is, the way that the seven L1s spoken by the participants differed from English was not considered as a potential influence on their ability to write in English. However, students' perceptions about the way that the *Reading to Learn* lessons may have helped them to improve their writing in the persuasive argument essay genre were included in the present study.

In order to include data about students' perceptions of the way that the instructional intervention may have improved their capacity to successfully write a persuasive argument essay, I utilized a post-instructional unit survey (Yasuda, 2011). These survey results indicated

that the 20 adolescent ELL participants' favorably regarded the usefulness of participating in the *Reading to Learn* lessons. In other words, students expressed that learning *how* language resources function to construe meanings in this genre strengthened their capacity to write in an academically-valued way in this genre. This positive student response lent support to the notion that using this genre-based approach may be an effective instructional approach for developing students' advanced literacy practices in the secondary ESL classroom.

Finally, these quantitative analyses were triangulated by the inclusion of an ethnographic approach (Walford, 2008). This ethnographic approach included rich descriptions of the theoretically-informed functional linguistic analyses of the six focal students' pretest and posttest essays. Furthermore, follow-up interviews (Yasuda, 2011) were conducted with these six focal students to more deeply probe students' perceptions of the effectiveness of the *Reading to Learn* approach on their capacity to write successfully in an academic way in English, their second language.

Thus, the overall findings in this current investigation that emerged from various data analyses suggested that the *Reading to Learn* framework may be one effective instructional approach that may support adolescent ELLs in the secondary ESL classroom in making progress in the development of advanced literacy practices. These findings also point to further questions about the development of genre-based curricular materials, teacher training, and future research. I discuss these issues in the final section below.

10.4 GENRE-BASED CURRICULAR MATERIALS, TEACHER TRAINING, AND FUTURE RESEARCH

10.4.1 Genre-based curricular materials

Having genre-based curricular materials available would have facilitated the implementation of the instructional intervention conducted in the current study. That is, having access to a curriculum unit that included materials for introducing the social purpose of the persuasive argument essay genre in the Preparing to Read stage and model texts for deconstruction and discussion in the Detailed Reading stage would have supported my efforts as the teacher/researcher to carry out this current investigation.

Additionally, the availability of texts about the thematic topic (e.g., whether amnesty should be granted to undocumented immigrants) to use in the Building Field lessons would also have facilitated the implementation of the instructional intervention. Finally, the opportunity to use a pre-made, theoretically-informed functional linguistic analysis and assessment tool would have aided me in evaluating and describing students' texts.

In other words, the potential for use of the genre-based *Reading to Learn* approach in secondary English as a Second Language (ESL) classrooms is likely to depend on the availability of a pre-designed, commercially-available curriculum that includes all of the necessary materials for guiding students through each stage of the *Reading to Learn* framework. Specifically, such a curriculum would include materials created to introduce adolescent ELLs to the key school-based genres currently valued in English Language Arts (ELA) at the secondary school level (e.g., narratives, responses to literature, literary critiques, informational texts, persuasive

argument essays). Each unit in the curriculum would need to be centered on a thematic topic and include texts that would build knowledge of the field around a particular theme and genre.

Furthermore, genre-based curricular materials would need to be aligned with current state ELA standards and potentially with new Common Core State Standards, which a growing number of states have already adopted. Moreover, these materials must highlight and explain the way that specific linguistic resources function to construe meanings in the various academic genres of ELA as well as include suggestions for instructional tasks that would be useful for teaching these language resources to students.

In summary, although educational linguists (Rose & Martin, 2012; Fang & Schleppegrell, 2008) have articulated the process for selecting texts, analyzing texts, and creating genre-based lessons in “teacher-friendly” publications, secondary ESL teachers may be hesitant to employ genre pedagogy with consistency if they have to determine ways to integrate this approach into an existing curriculum. That is, to develop competency in the implementation of genre-based lessons through iterations of the *Reading to Learn* approach around the teaching of distinct genres, teachers may require pre-designed, theoretically-informed curricular materials that comprise clear, sensible lessons that are ready to implement. Such well-designed curricular materials, however, would also require teachers to be knowledgeable about a functional linguistic approach to reading and writing instruction.

10.4.2 Teachers’ prerequisite knowledge about language and implications for future research

Ample research suggests that teachers’ fundamental Knowledge About Language (KAL) is a prerequisite for designing literacy instruction that may lead students to the development of

advanced literacy practices (e.g., Colombi & Schleppegrell, 2002; Macken-Horarik, et al., 2011; Schleppegrell, 2001, 2004). Advanced literacy practices include knowledge of the multiple, interrelated linguistic and metacognitive competencies related to reading, writing, listening, and speaking (Scarcella, 2002). It stands to reason that teachers must acquire specialized knowledge of grammar, vocabulary, discourse features and patterns, and metalinguistic strategies in order to guide students to attain this knowledge. Pointedly, KAL underpins genre pedagogy (Rose & Martin, 2012).

Many educational linguists and researchers agree that effective English language instruction is a salient factor in supporting ELLs' acquisition of advanced literacy practices (e.g., Rose & Martin, 2012; Schleppegrell, 2004; Scarcella, 2002). In fact, Rose and Martin (2012) noted that the extensive research of the Sydney School around school-valued genres led to a clear description of the pedagogic metalanguage teachers needed to analyze texts, plan lessons, and facilitate guided interaction in the context of shared experience in classrooms with students.

These researchers embedded functional KAL in the pedagogic strategies of the *Reading to Learn* approach for teaching genre writing. Notably, Rose and Martin (2012) designed an intensive training cycle for teachers to develop both KAL and familiarity with the pedagogic strategies of the *Reading to Learn* approach in order to prepare and support them in adopting genre pedagogy for classroom instruction. Pointedly, this teacher preparation cycle included active support in the classroom and ample opportunities for teachers to review, discuss, and improve their genre-based lessons.

It is important to keep in mind that the ultimate goal of the *Reading to Learn* approach is to provide all students with access to the same level of curriculum knowledge. That is, the

intention is for students to also “acquire knowledge about language, at the levels of genre, register, discourse, grammar and graphology/phonology” (Rose & Martin, 2012, pg. 310).

In conclusion, it seems clear that the adoption of genre pedagogy by secondary ESL teachers for the purpose of teaching adolescent ELLs to successfully write in the key academic genres of the content area of ELA presupposes access to both curricular materials and ongoing teacher training and support. Future research points to the development of such materials as well as to professional development cycles that may strengthen ESL teachers’ KAL and genre-based pedagogical practices.

That is, extensive teacher preparation and availability of genre-based curricular materials may be necessary to inspire ESL teachers to employ genre pedagogy as a way to guide adolescent ELLs to develop advanced literacy practices. Given the urgency to improve academic outcomes and open access to post-secondary career and educational opportunities for this underserved population of students, such research can be considered a matter of social justice.

APPENDIX A

PRO AMNESTY MODEL PERSUASIVE ARGUMENT ESSAY

The United States of America must live up to its claim to be a land of opportunity for all people who seek freedom and security by granting amnesty to undocumented immigrants who peacefully live and work here. Granting amnesty is the governmental act of officially allowing law-abiding immigrants who originally arrived in the U.S. without permission to stay here without penalty. Amnesty must be granted immediately for several reasons. Allowing undocumented immigrants to become legal and stay in the U.S. will strengthen the U.S. economy. In addition, permitting undocumented immigrants to remain in the U.S. legally will increase tax revenues that can improve public services for everyone. Most importantly, providing undocumented immigrants with the opportunity to live freely and securely will prove that the U.S. government's actions match its ideals.

According to Immigration ProCon.org, many people naively believe that undocumented immigrants take jobs away from American citizens. On the contrary, undocumented workers currently provide countless services by performing jobs that most Americans find undesirable. For instance, millions of undocumented workers harvest crops, clean hotels, and work in food service across the nation! Clearly, this steady labor force allows American businesses to prosper

by keeping their customers happy. Furthermore, granting undocumented immigrants the right to work legally means that these hard-working individuals can also access educational opportunities that may lead to better jobs which will stimulate the economy through the innovation of new products and services and the opening of new businesses.

Some Americans claim that U.S. tax dollars are spent unwisely on public services for undocumented immigrants, such as education and health care. In reality, the U.S. government's attempt to prevent undocumented immigrants from entering the U.S. and to deport those who are already here wastes billions of dollars each year. Interestingly, U.S. taxpayers are footing the bill for these misguided efforts! It is evident that permission to work for undocumented immigrants ensures that these workers will pay the same taxes as everyone else. This increase in tax revenue will lead to improved public services for everyone. For example, the availability of more revenue from taxes can support an improvement of public services in health, education, and transportation.

Throughout its history, the U.S. has proclaimed that it is a land of opportunity for all people who desire to live freely and work hard to provide a secure life for their families. Giving this opportunity to undocumented immigrants through amnesty is a way for the U.S. to prove that this ideal is true. Undocumented immigrants come to the U.S. to escape desperate poverty and to seek a better life for their families. Many undocumented parents even risk their lives and the lives of their small children to enter the U.S. in order to take part in this American promise. These parents often work two or three jobs to provide food, clothing, and housing for their families. A governmental decision to grant amnesty will prove that the U.S. is a nation that values people who have the determination to realize the American dream.

The act of granting amnesty to undocumented immigrants allows the U.S. to demonstrate its commitment to the ideals of freedom and prosperity for all hardworking people who want to participate fully in American life. Full participation in American life by undocumented immigrants will ensure a strong and steady workforce for many businesses and organizations. In turn, these dependable employees will strengthen the U.S. economy by generating more tax revenue and stimulating innovation. Finally, inviting undocumented immigrants to fully participate in American life symbolizes that the U.S. believes in its commitment to value, appreciate, and welcome all people who dream about a free, secure, and successful life.

APPENDIX B

AGAINST AMNESTY MODEL PERSUASIVE ARGUMENT ESSAY

Illegal aliens must not be granted amnesty which will permit them to live, work, and stay permanently in the United States after breaking the law by entering the country illegally. First, giving illegal aliens permission to live and work in the U.S. will certainly result in an increase in the number of aliens who believe it's acceptable to cross the border illegally. Secondly, extending legal employment opportunities to illegal aliens robs U.S. citizens of jobs. Lastly, the economic burden that will be created by extending even more welfare benefits to these low-skilled workers if they are legalized represents an unjust hardship for hardworking U.S. citizen taxpayers.

Proponents of amnesty mistakenly believe that granting amnesty to more than 15 million illegal aliens will put an end to this tidal wave of illegal entry into the U.S. It should be obvious how absolutely unrealistic this claim is. Clearly, millions more illegal aliens will be inspired to sneak into the U.S. once they believe that doing so will eventually result in permission to stay! This perpetual promise of amnesty will encourage illegal aliens to continue to blatantly break the law. Respecting the law is the foundation of American life, and this illegal invasion must not be tolerated or encouraged through amnesty.

Unemployment rates in the U.S. are currently at their highest levels in decades. Ordinary citizens and policymakers who believe that allowing illegal aliens to work legally does not steal jobs from U.S. citizens are strongly mistaken. This ridiculous assumption can be countered with cold, hard facts. According to a prominent international business and economics correspondent, the estimate that there are approximately 11 million illegal workers in the U.S. is extremely low. This gigantic illegal workforce means that at least 11 million U.S. citizens don't have jobs while these illegal workers do! Legalization of these workers who are already criminals for sneaking into the U.S. without permission represents an attack on deserving yet unemployed U.S. workers.

The U.S. government, and thereby U.S. taxpayers, are already wasting billions of dollars to provide social services to the unknown millions of illegal aliens who are already here. This grossly unfair economic burden, which U.S. workers already shoulder, will increase dramatically by legalizing illegal aliens through amnesty. The injustice of amnesty will lead to disastrous results for the U.S. economy. These low-skilled, under-educated, non-English speaking illegal workers are sure to remain impoverished even if they were to hold "legal" jobs. Amnesty, therefore, means a rapid and never-ending escalation in the number of non-citizens who will automatically feel entitled to health insurance, welfare benefits, and even unemployment benefits handed to them on a platter, courtesy of the U.S. government. Placing this financial burden on the backs of U.S. citizens is unthinkable.

The decision to grant amnesty to millions of illegal aliens represents an affront to the patriotic citizens of this country by their own government. The proclamation that breaking the law of the land by invading the U.S. in droves is no more serious than a traffic ticket sends the wrong message to millions of other potential lawbreakers just waiting for the chance to cross the border. In addition, waving a magic wand to turn these illegal aliens into legal ones is an insult

to every unemployed U.S. citizen. These citizens have families to feed and must not be “shoved to the back of the job line” behind illegal aliens! Furthermore, the legalization of this alien workforce signifies that higher-earning U.S. taxpayers must dig deeper into their own pockets to provide welfare benefits to these undeserving workers. It is abundantly obvious that the solution to the illegal alien crisis is immediate deportation, not amnesty.

APPENDIX C

PERFORMANCE CRITERIA AND ASSESSMENT TOOL

Types of Meaning	Language Resources of Realizing Each Type of Meaning	Very Effectively Used 4	Effectively Used 3	Used with Moderate Effectiveness 2	Not Effectively Used 1
Presentation of Content and Knowledge: Realizing Purpose	<p>Thesis statement draws on modality and consequential markers to propose and support a position.</p> <p>Nominal structures used to name the arguments to be developed.</p> <p>Counter-arguments presented through concession and refutation.</p> <p>Key terms defined through relational processes (verbs of <i>being</i> or <i>having</i>).</p>				
Projection of an Authoritative Stance: Meeting Audience Expectations	<p>Evaluation and judgment conveyed in an authoritative way to construct argument with claims and evidence.</p> <p>Use of modality that constructs possibility and necessity.</p> <p>Use of markers of consequential meanings to build explicit point of view.</p> <p>Projection through <i>mental</i> and <i>verbal</i> processes (verbs of <i>thinking</i> and <i>saying</i> to cite authorities that support or challenge the</p>				

	argument and to present author's own stance.				
Types of Meaning	Language Resources of Realizing Each Type of Meaning	Very Effectively Used 4	Effectively Used 3	Used with Moderate Effectiveness 2	Not Effectively Used 1
Construction of a Well-Organized Text: Building Coherence	<p>Introduction that names points to be developed.</p> <p>Points developed one by one in separate paragraphs.</p> <p>Summary statement reiterates the arguments.</p> <p>Chain of reasoning developed through nominal structures and internal connectors, including conjunctive links.</p> <p>Use of theme/rheme progression.</p> <p>Use of referents (cohesive demonstratives and other pronouns).</p>				

APPENDIX D

PRETEST

During this class period, write a first draft of an essay to persuade the principal to accept your point of view about the following topic:

Writing Prompt:

Your school has a new policy about the use of student planners this year. What is your viewpoint about the use of student planners?

Should students be required to use a planner?

Should students *not* be required to use a planner?

Explain your point of view in an essay that will be read by the school principal. Provide specific evidence to support your point of view. Try to persuade the principal to accept your point of view.

APPENDIX E

POST INSTRUCTIONAL UNIT SURVEY

Please write a brief answer to the first question:

1. In your own words, explain what a persuasive essay is and what it is supposed to do:

Read each statement below. Circle the response that is most true for you.

2. How much prior experience with writing persuasive essays in English did you have before this instructional unit?

1	2	3	4
<i>not at all</i>	<i>a little</i>	<i>somewhat</i>	<i>a lot</i>

3. Compared with the beginning of the instructional unit, how much do you think that you have improved your ability to write a persuasive essay in English?

1	2	3	4
<i>not at all</i>	<i>a little</i>	<i>somewhat</i>	<i>a lot</i>

4. Compared with the beginning of the instructional unit, how much do you think that you have changed your way of thinking about writing persuasive essays in English?

1	2	3	4
<i>not at all</i>	<i>a little</i>	<i>somewhat</i>	<i>a lot</i>

5. If you answered *a little*, *somewhat*, or *a lot* to question number four, please write a brief answer to this question:

How and why do you think you have changed in the way that you did?

APPENDIX F

POSTTEST

During this class period, write a first draft of an essay to persuade the principal to accept your point of view about the following topic:

Writing Prompt:

Your school had a new lunch detention policy this year. What is your viewpoint about the school's lunch detention policy?

Is the lunch detention policy fair to students?

Is the lunch detention policy *not* fair to students?

Explain your point of view in an essay that will be read by the school principal. Provide specific evidence to support your point of view. Try to persuade the principal to accept your point of view.

APPENDIX G

FOLLOW-UP INTERVIEW PROTOCOL TOOL

Questions for Follow-Up Interviews with Six Focal Students

Interview Script:

“I am going to ask you a few questions about the persuasive essays that you wrote during the instructional unit about the genre of persuasive writing in your ESL class. I am going to show you your essays so that you can refer to them when I ask you a question.”

“Please be as detailed as you can when you answer each question. I will tape-record your responses so that I don’t have to write down what you say and you can say as much as you want.”

“Do you have any questions for me before we begin?”

Q1: “Please look at the persuasive essay that you wrote first about using student planners and the one that you wrote later about lunch detention for students. Please tell me whether your writing improved from the first essay to the second one and why or why not.”

Note to interview: If student answers that his/her writing improved, please ask the following question. If not, please go on to question 2.

“Please explain *how* your writing improved. In other words, what exactly did you do to improve your persuasive writing in the second essay? Please be as specific and detailed as you can.”

Q2: “Now I’d like you to look at the persuasive essay that you wrote about amnesty for undocumented immigrants. I’m going to ask you a few questions about your essay. You may refer to your essay as you answer the questions. Please be as specific and detailed as you can as you answer each question.”

- a) “What is the topic of this essay—is it for or against amnesty?”
- b) “What was your purpose in writing this essay?”
- c) “Who was your audience for this essay?”
- d) “As the writer, what exactly did you do to present knowledge or information about the topic in this essay?”
- e) “As the writer, what exactly did you do to convey your stance or point of view in this essay?”

f) “Did you include a counter-argument in this essay? If so, what did you do as a writer to state a counter-argument?”

g) “As the writer, what exactly did you do to make sure that this essay was well-organized?”

“Now I’m going to ask you a few final questions about the instructional unit you just completed in your ESL class. Please be as detailed and specific as you can in your answers.”

Q3: “How successful do you think this reading and writing unit was in helping you to understand the structure of well-written persuasive essays? Please explain your thinking.”

Q4: “How successful do you think this reading and writing unit was in helping you to understand the language tools that you can use to write a well-written persuasive essay? Please explain your thinking.”

Q5: “How successful do you think this reading and writing unit was in helping you to learn to write a well-written persuasive essay? Please explain your thinking.”

“That’s it! We’re finished. Is there anything else that you want to add?”

“Thank you very much for taking the time to talk about your writing.”

APPENDIX H

WHAT IS AN IMMIGRATION AMENSTY?

TEXT 1

DOWNLOADED 10/8/11 from: http://www.ehow.com/about_5085706_amnesty-illegal-immigrants.html

What Is Amnesty for Illegal Immigrants?

Mike Broemmel began writing in 1982. He is an author/lecturer with two novels on the market internationally, "The Shadow Cast" and "The Miller Moth." Broemmel served on the staff of the White House Office of Media Relations. He holds a Bachelor of Arts in journalism and political science from Benedictine College and a Juris Doctorate from Washburn University. He also attended Brunel University, London. By Mike Broemmel, eHow Contributor



What Is Amnesty for Illegal Immigrants?

The legal definition of amnesty for illegal immigrants has been highly politicized in recent times. Setting aside the rhetoric, amnesty for illegal immigrants refers to allowing illegal immigrants to remain in the United States. However, many argue that this is not a proper application of the term "amnesty." Most of the proposals in this regard include penalties for being in the country illegally as part of gaining so-called amnesty. There are no penalties associated with true amnesty.

1. History

- The concept of amnesty dates back to ancient Greece. Amnesty refers to the restoration of a person who is guilty of a crime to the status of an innocent person. Amnesty is awarded in various ways. For example, in the United Kingdom, amnesty can be granted by the Queen or by an Act of Parliament. In the United States, President Andrew Johnson granted a rather general amnesty to Confederate soldiers. In regard to amnesty for illegal immigrants, many contend that President Ronald Reagan granted amnesty to several million such individuals during his time in office.

Function

- The primary functions of granting amnesty (or partial or qualified amnesty) to foreign nationals who illegally are in the United States are to bring them into compliance with the laws of the U.S.A. and to begin the process of allowing them to become U.S. citizens. Other functions are attributed to the concept of granting amnesty to illegal

immigrants, including enhancing homeland security and engaging in a compassionate objective.

Significance

- Although estimates vary, there is some agreement that there are at least 12 million individuals who are not legally in the United States. Some experts believe this number is significantly higher. In any event, if some sort of amnesty for illegal immigrants policy and program were to be put in place, the significance would be considerable. Millions of lives would be affected, and there is some concern that this type of broad grant of amnesty would further tax already stretched governmental budgets.

Time Frame

- In the discussions and debate surrounding amnesty for illegal immigrants, a variety of different time frames are being bandied about. At one extreme are those advocates who call for an immediate amnesty for illegal immigrants. At the other end of the spectrum are proposals that center on what can best be described as a drawn out path to citizenship that requires illegal immigrants to return to their nation of origin before they will be considered for a legal status in the United States.

Effects

- A great deal of the debate around the issue of amnesty for illegal immigrants centers on the ultimate effects of such a decision and process. There are individuals who oppose amnesty because they feel it rewards law breaking and penalizes individuals who entered the country legally. On the affirmative side, there are people who advocate for amnesty because contending that granting these individuals legal status in the country actually will have economic and other benefits.

Read more: What Is Amnesty for Illegal Immigrants? | eHow.com

http://www.ehow.com/about_5085706_amnesty-illegal-immigrants.html#ixzz1aF0sBnYi

APPENDIX I

QUESTIONS FOR WHAT IS AN IMMIGRATION AMNESTY TEXT

“What Is an Immigration Amnesty?”

Discuss and develop answers to the following Qs with your partner:

1. In the **first** text, the author defines amnesty as “granting legal status to a group of individuals unlawfully present in a country.” How can you **restate** this definition **in your own words**? _____

2. **Why** is amnesty a “simple, powerful, and undeniable” benefit to the undocumented (illegal) immigrants who may receive it? In other words, **how** would amnesty change undocumented immigrants’ lives? _____

3. In the **first** text, you learned that many undocumented immigrants were granted amnesty through the Immigration Reform and Control Act of 1986. Do you think this act **encouraged** or **discouraged** undocumented immigrants from continuing to enter the U.S.? **Explain** your thinking. _____

4. The **second** text states that some people believe granting amnesty is sending the message that “we are meant to be a law-abiding society, but we are not really playing by our own rules.” Are the people who believe this FOR or AGAINST amnesty? Why? _____

5. The **third** text suggests that the word “amnesty” has become a “political hot potato.” What does this phrase mean? What are other “political hot potato” issues that are currently debated in the media? _____

APPENDIX J

THE ADVANTAGES OF AMNESTY

TEXT 2

DOWNLOADED 10/8/11 from: http://www.ehow.com/info_8260083_advantages-amnesty.html

11.0 The Advantages of Amnesty

Abby began writing professionally in 2008. Her writing experience includes scholarly writing and articles for eHow. Abby enjoys writing brief how-to articles on legal issues. She holds a Juris Doctor degree from the University of Nebraska. By Abby Lane, eHow Contributor

updated April 20, 2011



The Statue of Liberty welcomes immigrants to the United States.

1. Immigrants to the United States who have immigrated illegally have committed an international criminal offense and are subject to deportation or jail time. Granting amnesty to undocumented immigrants is often proposed as a method of addressing the millions of undocumented foreign immigrants in the United States. Although this is a politically contentious issue, proponents of granting amnesty to undocumented immigrants argue there are several advantages to granting amnesty.
2. The United States is a Nation of Immigrants
 - Proponents of amnesty for undocumented immigrants argue that the United States is a nation founded by immigrants and that historically we as a nation have welcomed immigrants from other countries who are seeking to improve their lives. Many undocumented immigrants enter the United States in an effort to escape abject poverty and find jobs to support their families. Granting amnesty, proponents argue, is in line with our social, cultural and political values.

Immigrants Increase Diversity

- The United States is a country made up people from many races, religions, ethnicities and cultures. Proponents argue that granting amnesty to undocumented immigrants perpetuates a diverse and tolerant society.

Immigrants Take Undesirable Jobs

- Many undocumented immigrants in the United States work in low paying jobs that are undesirable to U.S. workers. Granting amnesty to these workers allows them to work legally in the United States and increases transparency in industries that employ low-wage earners. Under this theory, once undocumented workers become documented through the amnesty process, they will be better protected and the industries they work in will be more accountable.

Amnesty Would Boost the Economy

- At least one study has found that granting amnesty to undocumented workers would boost the economy and increase wages of native citizen-workers in the United States. Studies show that legal immigrants are more likely than native-born citizens to start their own businesses and therefore add to the economy. Amnesty would also allow undocumented workers to bargain collectively and assert their rights to employers without fear of deportation. Proponents argue this will result in better wages and working conditions for all workers.

Amnesty Encourages Legal Immigration

- Proponents of amnesty argue that by granting amnesty to undocumented workers already in the United States, new immigrants to the country will be encouraged to immigrate legally. Legal immigrants are required to pay taxes and send their children to school where they will learn English. Proponents of Amnesty believe that amnesty will encourage immigrants to more completely integrate with American society.

Read more: The Advantages of Amnesty | eHow.com

http://www.ehow.com/info_8260083_advantages-amnesty.html#ixzz1aF028mLd

APPENDIX K

QUESTIONS FOR THE ADVANTAGES OF AMNESTY TEXT

Complete the work below about “The Advantages of Amnesty” with your partner.

1. Introduction to Pro-Amnesty Arguments

1. Reread the first paragraph under the picture of the Statue of Liberty. What words tell you that this author, Abby Lane, feels that illegal immigrants have broken the law?

2. What other words does Abby use in paragraph #1 that mean the same thing as “illegal immigrants?”

3. Read the **last** sentence in this paragraph. You can use context clues to figure out what the word “proponents” means. What does it mean?

2. Five Arguments for Amnesty

3. Abby Lane describes five arguments for granting amnesty to undocumented immigrants. **Which one** of these five claims do **YOU** believe is the most powerful? **WHY?**

4. How **reliable** (e.g., true, trustworthy, accurate) do you think these 5 arguments for amnesty are? **Explain** your thinking.

5. The “Other” Argument

The text that you read today did NOT introduce any arguments AGAINST amnesty for undocumented immigrants. What do **YOU** imagine that arguments *against amnesty* might be?

In other words, WHY might some people feel that undocumented immigrants should NOT be granted amnesty, giving them permission to live and work in the U.S. *legally* even though they came to the U.S. *illegally*? List possible arguments *against* amnesty on the back of this paper. Finish for homework.

APPENDIX L

QUESTIONS FOR ROOTS OF MIGRATION VIDEO

Roots of Migration Video Reflection



In the title *Roots of Migration*, what's a synonym for "roots?" _____

What are some reasons that people from Mexico and Central America migrate to the United States?

Explain how migration is both "painful" and "a relief" to workers who migrate to the U.S.:

A large part of this video focused on linking the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) to people's decision to leave their country and family behind in order to go to the U.S. as an undocumented worker.

For example, think about what was said about the way that NAFTA supports U.S. farmers in selling U.S. grown corn in Mexico and how this sale of U.S. corn in Mexico affects Mexican farmers. Or, think about what was said about the differences in hourly and daily wages and in environmental laws between the U.S. and Mexico.

What did YOU understand about the connection between trade and migration?

The video mentioned both a positive and negative impact that undocumented immigration has on Mexican communities. Make a list of these influences:

Positive Impact

Negative Impact

Finish this worksheet for homework. ON THE BACK, write a few sentences to answer this question: “What do undocumented immigrants lose even if they gain some economic security when they make the decision to go to the U.S. to work?”

APPENDIX M

CONS FOR AMNESTY FOR ILLEGAL IMMIGRANTS

TEXT 3

Downloaded 10/8/11 from: http://www.ehow.com/info_8490383_cons-amnesty-illegal-immigrants.html

Annabeth Kaine began writing in 2010 with work appearing on various websites. She has successfully run two businesses, held chairmanship positions on two fund-raising committees and received excellence-in-service awards for both. Kaine is completing her Bachelor of Arts in psychology. By Annabeth Kaine, eHow Contributor

updated May 25, 2011

There are between 12 and 20 million illegal immigrants in the United States as of 2011, according to USA Amnesty. A proposed plan by President Obama intends to give amnesty to the undocumented workers in America that are in good standing with the United States. According to the plan, immigrants would pay a fine, learn English and pave the way to citizenship over 10 years.

Crime

- Undocumented workers given amnesty are forgiven for breaking the law by entering the United States illegally. When this crime is forgiven, it reinforces to other immigrants that it is not necessary to follow the rules for citizenship. Amnesty also forgives crime from the immigrant's home country. If the undocumented worker is in America, there is no record of any crimes committed in another country. Without screening and background **checking**, serious offenses go without prosecution.

Jobs

- When undocumented workers perform jobs for lower wages, it brings down the earn-able amount of **money** for trained professionals. Highly educated individuals may then look for jobs outside of the United States. Citizens that have less training or education compete with non-citizens, and undocumented workers will perform the same

tasks for less money. Since undocumented workers receive money under the table the income is not taxed.

Social Programs

- Illegal immigrants qualify for several types of social programs, including medical, housing, education and food. Since these people are not employed in the United States and are not eligible for employment, they do not pay taxes into the social programs they are drawing from.

American Identity

- With an increase of illegal aliens and undocumented workers not following the typical route to citizenship, many do not learn how to speak English. America is known as a melting pot, with each culture adding its own unique flair to the nation. However, amnesty does not require illegal immigrants to learn English, at least not right away. The English language and identity may melt away when immigrants are not required to learn America's policies and language.

Read more: [Cons for Amnesty for Illegal Immigrants | eHow.com](http://www.ehow.com/info_8490383_cons-amnesty-illegal-immigrants.html#ixzz1aEz6pZMp)
http://www.ehow.com/info_8490383_cons-amnesty-illegal-immigrants.html#ixzz1aEz6pZMp

APPENDIX N

QUESTIONS FOR CONS FOR AMNESTY FOR ILLEGAL IMMIGRANTS TEXT

After reading “Cons for Amnesty for Illegal Immigrants,” complete the work below with your partner:

The author of this text, Annabeth Kaine, presents 4 arguments AGAINST granting amnesty to undocumented immigrants, otherwise known as “illegal immigrants.” Ms. Kaine links her reasons that amnesty should NOT be granted to four societal issues: crime, jobs, social programs, and American identity.

Reread each argument carefully. Then, work with your partner to ***restate each argument against amnesty IN YOUR OWN WORDS***. In other words, **briefly summarize** the reasons that Ms. Kaine gives for NOT giving amnesty to undocumented immigrants **without** using Ms. Kaine’s words.

Crime:

Jobs:

Social Programs:

American Identity:

Do YOU **disagree** with ANY of these arguments? If so, why? If not, why not?

APPENDIX O

IMMIGRATION AMNESTY PROS AND CONS

TEXT 4

DOWNLOADED 10/8/11 from http://www.ehow.com/facts_4810340_immigration-amnesty-pros-cons.html

Immigration Amnesty Pros & Cons

Shane Hall is a writer and research analyst with more than 20 years of experience. His work has appeared in "Brookings Papers on Education Policy," "Population and Development" and various Texas newspapers. Hall has a Doctor of Philosophy in political economy and is a former college instructor of economics and political science. By Shane Hall, eHow Contributor

Illegal immigration -- and what to do about it -- is one of the biggest hot-button issues in politics. This article examines the pros and cons of an immigration amnesty program.

Significance

- Illegal immigration ranks as one of the most contentious issues in American politics. Ideas for addressing the issue include a "path to citizenship" with a guest worker program. Critics charge that it amounts to granting amnesty to illegal immigrants -- something that was done in a 1986 immigration bill. Here is an overview of the pros and cons of an amnesty program.

Pro: War on Terror Resources

- An amnesty program would allow the government to better focus its resources in the "war on terrorism." Resources that are now focused on capturing illegal immigrants, most of whom enter the country to work, could be redirected toward other homeland security needs such as U.S. ports.

Pro: Economics

- Most illegal immigrants fill low-paying agricultural and service sector jobs that most native-born citizens do not want. An amnesty program would allow these workers to continue to contribute to the overall economy.

Pro: Family Unity

- Many illegal immigrants have children who, by virtue of their birth, are citizens or legal residents. An amnesty program would keep these families intact.

Con: Unfair

- An amnesty program rewards people for breaking the law by entering the country illegally and encourages more illegal immigration. Meanwhile, people who enter the country legally through proper channels are penalized.

Con: Costs

- Illegal immigrants impose heavy costs on governments through their use of public services such as education and public health care systems. They also are costly to deport.

Con: Wages

- Illegal immigrants take jobs from native-born workers and drive down wages by taking jobs for lower pay.

Read more: Immigration Amnesty Pros & Cons | eHow.com

http://www.ehow.com/facts_4810340_immigration-amnesty-pros-cons.html#ixzz1aExsFevJ

APPENDIX P

TWO IMMIGRANTS KILLED IN AMBUSH BY ARIZONA GUNMEN

Two Immigrants Killed in Ambush by Arizona Gunmen
Wednesday, 11 April 2012 11:31

By Mike Ludwig, Truthout / Report

Eloy, Arizona. Two people were killed on Sunday night when "an unknown number of subjects in camouflage clothing armed with rifles" ambushed a truck carrying 20 to 30 undocumented immigrants near the southern Arizona town of Eloy," according to the Pima County sheriff's department.

Border Patrol agents and police found one body in the bed of the pickup truck and the other nearby in the desert. The identities of the victims have not been released.

Five other border crossers were found hiding in nearby brush and were turned over to Border Patrol after being questioned. The rest managed to escape into the desert on foot.

When asked if investigators suspect the attack was orchestrated by a militia, sheriff's department spokesperson Deputy Dawn Barkman said investigators are "looking into every possibility but nothing is conclusive."

The truck carrying the immigrants was traveling in a wash that is commonly used for "human smuggling," according to the sheriff's department. A wash is a river in the desert that is often without water.

This is not the first deadly attack by people reportedly dressed in paramilitary-style gear in the area. In 2007, four men armed with an assault weapon and wearing camouflage and berets ambushed a vehicle 40 miles north of Eloy and killed a smuggling suspect and wounded another person.

The attack comes as the Arizona legislature is considering a bill that would create a volunteer, state-sponsored and fully armed militia to aid the Border Patrol along the United States-Mexico

border. Militia members would be able to pursue, arrest and detain individuals. The 300-person militia would cost taxpayers \$1.4 million annually and would be under the control of the governor.

Rep. Raul Grijalva (D-Arizona) criticized the bill last month after an appropriations committee approved it.

"This legislation is not just silly and irresponsible, it's a public safety threat," Grijalva said. "To arm individuals, provide paper-thin weapons training and deliberately place them in danger disrespects the taxpayers of our great state and cheapens the professionalism of our border security agents."

Crossing the border can be a dangerous task beyond the threat of attack. Immigrants often die of dehydration or malnutrition while crossing the harsh Sonoran Desert and attempting to avoid arrest. The humanitarian aid group No More Deaths has documented 71 deaths of immigrants attempting to cross the Mexico-Arizona border area since October 2011.

APPENDIX Q

WRITING ACADEMICALLY-VALUED PERSUASIVE ESSAYS GRAPHIC ORGANIZER

Introduction: High school and college students are expected to know how to write a persuasive argument. In this genre, the writer must be able to develop an introduction that includes a *thesis statement* (position) and presents the *arguments* (reasons for the writer's position) to be developed, support those arguments with *evidence* in the body of the essay, and write a *conclusion* in which the writer reiterates (restates) the arguments and the writer's thesis statement.

T-P-S: Why do high schools and colleges *value* students' competency (ability) to write persuasive essays in which students respond to text(s) they've read by stating and developing arguments about the main topic of the text(s)? In other words, what *skills or abilities* do students who can write this type of essay successfully possess? **Record your response:**

T-P-S: Many people are adept (skilled) at writing persuasive arguments. Parents can write them to school boards, business people write them, scientists, politicians, educational experts, and *ordinary citizens* write persuasive essays all the time! WHY is the *persuasive argument essay* an important genre? In other words, what *social purpose* do these essays serve? **Record your response:**

T-P-S: What kinds of topics do you think people write persuasive essays about? **Brainstorm a list:**

Writers of *academically-valued persuasive argument essays* pay close attention to **three kinds of meanings:**

Type of Meaning	How Writers Develop this Type of Meaning
Presentation of Content and Knowledge: Realizing Purpose	*State thesis strongly and clearly *Present arguments to be developed *Introduce and refute counter-argument *Define key terms
Projection of Authoritative Stance: Meeting Audience Expectations	*Present stance w. authority but impersonally *Convey evaluation and judgment of the topic *Include others' voices that support or challenge main argument
Construction of a Well-Organized Text: Building Coherence	*Arguments clearly stated in introduction *Arguments developed in separate paragraphs *Logical "chain of reasoning" links arguments together



”Ugh!” “Just the thought of writing a persuasive argument essay makes me want to pull my hair out!”

“As a writer, HOW IN THE WORLD do I develop these three kinds of meanings in my essay?”

Don’t worry! The purpose of this instructional unit is for you to **learn and practice** the ***language tools*** that successful writers of persuasive argument essays use to write in an academically-valued way. You will learn ***exactly how*** to write this type of essay well!

In this instructional unit, you will:

- ✓ Work with me to take apart/deconstruct model persuasive essays both for and against amnesty for undocumented immigrants.
 - ✓ Identify, discuss, and practice using the ***language tools*** that are evident in the model persuasive essays.
 - ✓ Write with me to use those ***language tools*** to write a similar persuasive essay.
 - ✓ Write with a partner to use those ***language tools*** to write another similar persuasive essay.
 - ✓ Use the **language tools** that you have learned to independently write your own persuasive essay either for or against amnesty.
- ✓ Let’s take a look at the rubric that identifies what those language tools are! You will learn about each language tool listed in the rubric. You can use the rubric to guide your own writing, and it will be used to evaluate your writing as well.

APPENDIX R

NOMINALIZATION PRACTICE

Nominalization



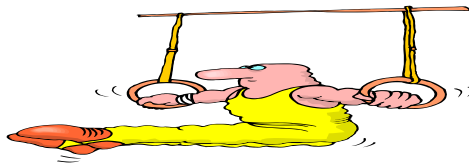
We are learning that nominalization is an important language tool for academic writers!

Nominalization allows a writer to restate a verb as a noun and then to indicate the result of that “thing” through a causal link. Linking “things” with their results helps a writer to create a chain of reasoning in a persuasive argument essay.

Using nominalization also provides a writer with the opportunity to judge the “thing or event” using evaluative language. Nominalization supports a writer in stating an argument in an impersonal, authoritative way by leaving out “who” is responsible for the “thing or event.”

Finally, nominalization lets a writer “pack” a lot of information into fewer words which helps to create a writing style that is different from a speaking style.

Let’s Look at Some Examples and Practice!



Academic Writing Demands Great Effort! You Can Do It!

Teenagers need to get enough sleep. Sufficient rest allows teenagers to be alert and ready to learn!

Another possibility: Teenagers need to get enough sleep. Getting enough rest increases teenagers’ ability to pay attention in class.

Another possibility: Teenagers need to get enough sleep. A minimum of eight hours of sleep contributes to teenagers’ alertness during class time.

Another possibility: Teenagers need to get enough sleep. Sleeping at least eight hours means teenagers will be more attentive in class.

YOUR TURN!

Read the first sentence in each item below. Use a nominalization in the second sentence and indicate a result of that “thing.”

1. Stephen King said it’s important to read a lot of different kinds of books.

2. We should think carefully about an advertisement before we buy a product.

3. Giving clues about what will happen next in a story is one technique authors use to build suspense!

4. TV violence is not good for children.

5. Many teenagers wear clothing or shoes with company logos.

6. Reading is one of the best ways to learn new words.

7. It’s important to read and consider each food product’s nutritional information.

8. Everyone should exercise!

Challenge: How can you continue creating a *chain of reasoning* for the above items? Write what the *next* sentence could be in three items above. Don’t forget to use *modals* and other *evaluative language* to convey your opinion!



You're unlocking the mystery to good writing! I think you've got it!

APPENDIX S

MODALITY PRACTICE

In English, *modals* are words that allow an author or speaker to show how possible or how necessary something is. In other words, modals convey the author's or speaker's *belief* about how likely it is that something will happen or how necessary it is for something to happen.

Let's look more closely at these two categories of modals:

Modals of Possibility			Modals of Necessity		
<i>Low</i>	<i>Medium</i>	<i>High</i>	<i>Low</i>	<i>Medium</i>	<i>High</i>
could might	can may	will	should	need to have to	must

Let's look at some examples using *Modals of Possibility*:

Read the sentences below. With you partner, discuss the *difference* in the writer's *belief* about *how possible or how likely* the event is to occur. In other words, the modal shows *how sure* the writer is about the possibility of the event occurring. The *modal* is the key that reveals the writer's belief.

1. The price of gas **will** continue to rise throughout the upcoming summer.
2. The price of gas **may** continue to rise throughout the summer.
3. The price of gas **might** continue to rise throughout the summer.

Read some more sentences. Talk with your partner about the difference in the writer's belief about how likely it is that the event will occur.

1. Global warming **could** lead to an increase in violent storms across the world.
2. Global warming **can** lead to an increase in violent storms across the world.
3. Global warming **will** lead to an increase in violent storms across the world.
4. Global warming causes an increase in violent storms across the world.

*WHICH sentence shows that the writer is **quite certain** about this potential consequence of global warming? **Fairly certain? Somewhat but not too certain? 100% certain?***

You try it! Write 3 sentences below that use modals of possibility to show *different degrees of certainty* about the idea that “higher education leads to a good job in the future:”

Sentence 1: Write a sentence to show that you are *not very sure* that “higher education leads to a good job in the future.”

Sentence 2: Write a sentence to show that you are *fairly sure* that “higher education leads to a good job in the future.”

Sentence 3: Write a sentence to show that you are *quite sure* that “higher education leads to a good job in the future.”

Now let’s look at some examples using Modals of Necessity:

Read the sentences below. Talk with your partner about the *difference in the writer’s belief* that the action needs to occur. In other words, the modal is a language tool that a writer or speaker can use to reveal his/her *certainty* that something *should*, *needs to*, or *must* happen.

1. People **should** contact their congressional representatives about the need for gun control.
2. People **have to** contact their congressional representatives about the need for gun control.
3. People **must** contact their congressional representatives about the need for gun control.

Read some more sentences. Talk with your partner about the difference in the writer’s belief that the action needs to happen.

1. Schools **must** provide after school learning opportunities for students of all ages.
2. Schools **should** provide after school learning opportunities for students of all ages.
3. Schools **need to** provide after school learning opportunities for students of all ages.

What’s the *difference* in the writer’s belief about how necessary, or important, it is for schools to provide after school learning opportunities for students of all ages?

Let’s think about a “speaking” example. In the sentences below, what’s the *difference in the speaker’s belief* that it’s *necessary* for the listener to do what the speaker says?

1. “You **need to** clean your room before you go out with your friends today.”
2. “You **should** clean your room before you go out with your friends today.”
3. “You **must** clean your room before you go out with your friends today!”
4. “Clean your room before you go out with your friends today!”

Your turn! Use modals of necessity to convey different degrees of necessity for students to read many different kinds of books:

Sentence 1: Write a sentence that reveals that it's not highly necessary for students to read many different kinds of books.

Sentence 2: Write a sentence that reveals that it's extremely necessary for students to read many different kinds of books.

Sentence 3: Write a sentence that reveals that it's rather (or fairly) necessary for students to read many different kinds of books.

Which modals of possibility and necessity do you think are most useful to a writer who wants to convey a strong argument in an authoritative way? Explain.

APPENDIX T

AUTHORITATIVELY SPEAKING!



We are learning that writers of academically-valued persuasive argument essays must use an “authoritative voice.” This authoritative voice must be *convincing yet impersonal*. *An impersonal stance allows a writer to convey his/her point of view on an issue in a reasoned, authoritative way.*

Look at these examples that show how to turn a “personal statement” into a more authoritative, impersonal one!

Personal and not authoritative:

“I think that advertisements may lead teens to buy products that they don’t need.”

More impersonal and somewhat authoritative:

“It seems clear that advertisements may lead teens to buy products that they don’t need.”

Even more impersonal and authoritative:

“Clearly, advertisements may lead teens to buy products that they don’t need.”

Impersonal and authoritative:

“Advertisements lead teens to buy products that they don’t need.”

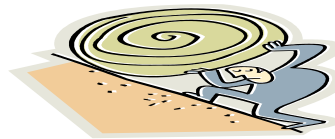
Practice! Read the sentences below and number them (1 to 4) in order from *most personal and least authoritative (1)* to *most impersonal and authoritative (4)*:

Students should be permitted to have cell phones on in class. _____

My opinion about cell phones in class is that students should be permitted to have them on. _____

Schools must permit students to have cell phones on in class. _____

Certainly, schools should permit students to have cell phones on in class. _____



“Effort = Success!”

YOUR TURN!

Rewrite each personal statement below twice to create more authoritative, impersonal statements.

1. The way I see it, students should be allowed to check in with their teacher first and then use the bathroom.

2. It seems clear to me that the U.S. shouldn't let so many immigrant comes here.

3. I truly believe that parents need to monitor what their children can watch on TV.

4. Some people think that companies shouldn't be allowed to advertise on the Internet.

5. Many teachers really believe that electronic devices have no place in a school, but I think they're wrong.

Are you getting the idea about how to make your writing more authoritative and impersonal?

APPENDIX U

PRO AND CON VIEWPOINTS ON TOPICS RELATED TO AMNESTY

1. Using the Term "Illegal Alien"	
<p>PRO: "The correct terminology for the nearly 20 million persons illegally in the U.S. is illegal aliens. The term undocumented immigrants is purposely incorrect in order to sway the public in favor of special interest groups and only clouds the reality of the situation... The term illegal alien is broader and more accurate because it includes undocumented aliens and nonimmigrant visa overstayers. ...the term illegal alien, being broader in scope, is the accurate term to use. In that immigrant connotes legality, the term illegal immigrant is really an oxymoron."</p> <p><i>IllegalAliens.us</i>★ "Calling an Illegal Alien an Undocumented Immigrant Is Like Calling a Burglar an Uninvited House Guest," <i>illegalaliens.us</i> accessed Jan. 18, 2007</p>	<p>CON: "The National Association of Hispanic Journalists (NAHJ) is concerned with the increasing use of pejorative terms to describe the estimated 11 million undocumented people living in the United States. NAHJ is particularly troubled with the growing trend of the news media to use the word 'illegals' as a noun, shorthand for 'illegal aliens.' Using the word in this way is grammatically incorrect and crosses the line by criminalizing the person, not the action they are purported to have committed. NAHJ calls on the media to never use 'illegals' in headlines... [and] to avoid 'Illegal alien.' Alternative terms are 'undocumented worker,' or 'undocumented immigrant.'"</p> <p><i>National Association of Hispanic Journalists</i>★ "NAHJ Urges News Media to Stop Using Dehumanizing Terms When Covering Immigration," <i>nahj.org</i> accessed Jan. 19, 2007</p>
2. Amnesty	
<p>PRO: "Whether you fine illegal aliens or stick them in English classes or make them say a hundred Hail Marys, at the end of the day, illegals would be allowed to stay and become citizens... That's amnesty. And that's a good thing for America. Amnesty won't depress wages - globalization has already done that. Amnesty will not undermine the rule of law. [...] It sounds counterintuitive, but with immigration, forgiving a crime may be the best way to restore law and order. Amnesty won't necessarily add to the social-</p>	<p>CON: "Do not grant amnesty to illegal aliens. Regardless of the penalties imposed, any program that grants individuals who are unlawfully present the legal permission to remain here rewards illegal behavior and is unfair to those who obey the law and go through the regulatory and administrative requirements to enter the country legally. Those who enter the United States illegally should not be rewarded with permanent legal status or other such benefits, and they should be penalized in any road to citizenship. Those who</p>

services burden. [...] Amnesty would offer millions... a fighting chance at self-sufficiency and social mobility."

Nathan Thornburgh★
Time Magazine reporter
"A Case for Amnesty," Time
June 7, 2007

enter and remain in the country illegally are violating the law, and condoning or encouraging such violations increases the likelihood of further illegal conduct."

Heritage Foundation★
"Immigration," MyHeritage.org
accessed Oct. 3, 2007

3. Deportation

PRO: "...deporting aliens is as easy as one, two, three. The next time you hear [U.S. President] George W. Bush or [U.S. Secretary of Homeland Security] Michael Chertoff say how impossible immigration enforcement is, remember this simple formula: one, go to where you know aliens are; two, arrest them; three, deport them. Don't bother asking where aliens hang out. The better question is where aren't they hanging out. Go to a bus stop, a taco truck, a convenience store, the post office or an auto repair shop. No need to round them all up at once. Just arrest one or two every day at different locations around town and the message will soon get out."

Joe Guzzardi★
English teacher at Lodi Adult School in
California
"Deportation: As Easy As One, Two, Three,"
VDare.com
Aug. 19, 2007

CON: "I have listened to and understand the concerns of those who simply advocate sealing our borders and rounding up and deporting undocumented workers currently in residence here. But that's easier said than done... I have yet to hear a single proponent of this point of view offer one realistic proposal for locating, apprehending, and returning to their countries of origin over 11 million people. How do we do that? ...it would take 200,000 buses extending along a 1700 mile long line to deport 11 million people. That's assuming we had the resources to locate and apprehend all 11 million, or even half that number, which we don't have and, we all know, won't ever have."

John McCain★★★
U.S. Senator (R-AZ)
Statement on the Senate floor
Mar. 30, 2006

4. Terrorist Threat

PRO: "Knowledgeable Americans have come to understand that our welcoming immigration policies are easily exploited by terrorists and that porous borders and lax immigration enforcement are no longer an option. With at least 8 million illegal aliens living in the United States and nearly one million new aliens arriving each year, the potential for terrorists entering the United States undetected is high."

CON: "Illegal immigrants are not terrorists. They want to come legally to do the jobs Americans don't want, but our broken immigration system doesn't allow that to happen. If there were legal channels for these migrants to use, the government could concentrate on identifying the real terrorists. Instead, the government is wasting money and manpower trying to keep out the immigrant workers the U.S. economy needs. That makes

<p><i>Center for Immigration Studies</i>★ <i>"Terrorism & National Security," cis.org</i> <i>accessed Sep. 12, 2007</i></p>	<p>the job of finding a terrorist like finding a needle in a haystack."</p> <p><i>American Immigration Law Foundation</i>★ <i>"Immigrants Aren't Undermining Our Nation's Security. Flawed Immigration Laws Are," aifl.org</i> <i>accessed Sep. 12, 2007</i></p>
<p>5. Economic Burden</p>	
<p>PRO: "The economic and social consequences of illegal immigration... are staggering... Illegal aliens have cost billions of taxpayer-funded dollars for medical services... Immigration is a net drain on the economy; corporate interests reap the benefits of cheap labor, while taxpayers pay the infrastructural cost... \$60 billion dollars are earned by illegal aliens in the U.S. each year. One of Mexico's largest revenue streams (after exports and oil sales) consists of money sent home by legal immigrants and illegal aliens working in the U.S... This is a massive transfer of wealth from America - essentially from America's displaced working poor - to Mexico."</p> <p><i>Colorado Alliance for Immigration Reform (CAIR)</i>★ <i>"Economic Costs of Legal and Illegal Immigration," cairco.org</i> <i>accessed Oct. 24, 2007</i></p>	<p>CON: "[E]very empirical study of illegals' economic impact demonstrates... undocumented immigrants actually contribute more to public coffers in taxes than they cost in social services. Moreover, undocumented immigrants contribute to the U.S. economy through their investments and consumption of goods and services; filling of millions of essential worker positions resulting in subsidiary job creation, increased productivity and lower costs of goods and services; and unrequited contributions to Social Security, Medicare and unemployment insurance programs. "</p> <p><i>Francine J. Lipman</i>★★★★ <i>Professor of Law, Business and Economics at Chapman University</i> <i>"Taxing Undocumented Immigrants: Separate, Unequal and Without Representation," Tax Lawyer</i> <i>Spring 2006</i></p>

APPENDIX V

SELF-ASSESSMENT/REFLECTION TOOL



Today, you will self-assess your persuasive argument essay! Think about how successfully you created each of the three kinds of meaning in your essay and how well you used the language tools you've been learning to create these meanings. Be prepared to explain your ratings!

Presentation of Content and Knowledge

	<u>Fantastic!</u>	<u>Good!</u>	<u>Fair</u>	<u>Poor</u>
Thesis statement uses modality and a causal link to convey author's position.	4	3	2	1
A relational process is used to define "amnesty."	4	3	2	1
Nominalization is used to present the arguments to be developed.	4	3	2	1
A counter-argument is presented and refuted.	4	3	2	1

Projection of an Authoritative Stance

	<u>Fantastic!</u>	<u>Good!</u>	<u>Fair</u>	<u>Poor</u>
Evaluative language is used throughout the essay to convey author's claims and evidence in an academic, authoritative way to persuade reader.	4	3	2	1
Strong modals are used to convey how certain the author is that "acts" are possible or necessary.	4	3	2	1
Causal links are used to convey author's point of view.	4	3	2	1
Mental or verbal processes are used to introduce introduce other's voices.	4	3	2	1

Contruction of Well-Organized Essay

	<u>Fantastic!</u>	<u>Good!</u>	<u>Fair</u>	<u>Poor</u>
Introduction names arguments to be developed.	4	3	2	1
Arguments are developed in separate paragraphs.	4	3	2	1
Arguments are reiterated in conclusion and author restates thesis statement.	4	3	2	1
Author creates a “chain of reasoning” through nominalization, causal links, connectors, and conjunctions.	4	3	2	1
Thematic progression is used to help author link ideas in a logical way.	4	3	2	1
Referents and synonyms are used to “guide” the reader.	4	3	2	1

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Achugar, M., Schleppegrell, M., & Oteiza, T. (2007). Engaging teachers in language analysis: A functional linguistics approach to reflective literacy. *English Teaching: Practice and Critique*, 6, 8-24.
- Aguirre-Munoz, Z., Park, J., Amabisca, A., & Boscardin, C. K. (2008). Developing teacher capacity for serving ELLs' writing instructional needs: A case for systemic functional linguistics. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 31, 295-322.
- Barton, M. (Producer). (2009). *Roots of migration* [DVD]. Available from <http://www.WitnessForPeace.org>.
- Bernstein, B. (1971). *Class codes and control, Vol. 1: Theoretical studies towards a sociology of language*. Boston: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Bernstein, B. (1975). *Class, codes and control, Vol. 3: Towards a theory of educational transmissions*. London: Routledge.
- Bernstein, B. (1990). *Class, codes and control. Vol. 4: The structuring of pedagogic discourse*. London: Routledge.
- Bernstein, B. (1996). *Pedagogy, symbolic control and identity: Theory, research, critique*. Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield.
- Bernstein, B. (2000). *Pedagogy, symbolic control and identity: Theory, research, critique* (Rev. ed.). Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield.
- Brisk, M. E., & Zisselsberger, M. (2011). "We've let them in on the secret": Using SFL theory to improve the teaching of writing to bilingual learners. In T. Lucas (Ed.), *Teacher preparation for linguistically diverse classrooms: A resource for teacher educators* (pp. 111-126). New York and London: Routledge.
- Broemmel, M. (2011, October 8). What is an immigration amnesty? Retrieved from http://www.ehow.com/about_5085706_amnesty-illegal-immigrants.html

- Calderon, M. (2007). *Teaching reading to English language learners, grades 6-12: A framework for improving achievement in the content areas*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.
- Calderon, M. E., & Minaya-Rowe, L. (2011). *Preventing long-term ELs: Transforming schools to meet core standards*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.
- Celce-Murcia, M. (2002). On the use of selected grammatical features in academic writing. In M. C. Colombi & M. J. Schleppegrell (Eds.), *Developing advanced literacy in first and second languages: Meaning with power* (pp. 143-158). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Christie, F. (1994). Developing an educational linguistics for English language teaching: A systemic functional linguistic perspective. *Functions of Language* 1(1), 95-127.
- Christie, F. (1999). The pedagogic device and the teaching of English. In F. Christie (Ed.), *Pedagogy and the shaping of consciousness: Linguistic and social processes* (pp. 156-184). London: Cassell.
- Christie, F. (2001). Pedagogic discourse in the post-compulsory years: Pedagogic subject positioning. *Linguistics and Education*, 11(4), 313-331.
- Christie, F. (2002). The development of abstraction in adolescence in subject English. In M. C. Colombi & M. J. Schleppegrell, (Eds.), *Developing advanced literacy in first and second languages: Meaning with power* (pp. 45-66). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Christie, F. (2007). Ongoing dialogue: Functional linguistic and Bernsteinian sociological perspectives on education. In F. Christie & J. R. Martin (Eds.), *Language, knowledge and pedagogy: Functional linguistic and sociological perspectives* (pp. 3-13). London and Washington: Continuum Press.
- Christie, F. (2012). *Language education throughout the school years: A functional Perspective*. West Sussex: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Christie, F., & Derewianka, B. (2008). *School discourse*. London and New York: Continuum.
- Christie, F., & Dreyfus, S. (2007). Letting the secret out: Successful writing in secondary English. *Australian Journal of Language and Literacy*, 30(3), 235-247.
- Christie, F., & Martin, J. R. (1997). *Genres and institutions: Social processes in the workplace and school*. London: Cassell.
- Christie, F., & Martin, J. R. (Eds.). (2007). *Language, knowledge and pedagogy: Functional linguistic and sociological perspectives*. London: Continuum.

- Christie, F., & Unsworth, L. (2000). Developing socially responsible language research. In L. Unsworth (Ed.), *Researching language in schools and communities: Functional linguistic perspectives* (pp. 1-26). London: Cassell.
- Cloran, C. (1999). Contexts for learning. In F. Christie (Ed.), *Pedagogy and the shaping of consciousness: Linguistic and social processes* (pp. 31-65). London: Cassell.
- Cloran, C. (2000). Socio-semantic variation: Different wordings, different meanings. In L. Unsworth (Ed.), *Researching language in schools and communities: Functional linguistic approaches* (pp. 152-183). London: Cassell.
- Coffin, C. (1997). Constructing and giving value to the past: An investigation into secondary school history. In F. Christie & J. R. Martin (Eds.), *Language, knowledge and pedagogy: Functional linguistic and sociological perspectives* (pp. 196-230). London: Cassell.
- Coffin, C. (2004). Learning to write history: The role of causality. *Written Communication*, 21(3), 261-289.
- Coffin, C. (2006). Learning the language of school history: The role of linguistics in mapping the writing demands of the secondary school curriculum. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 38(4), 413-429.
- Colombi, M. C., & Schleppegrell, M. J. (2002). Theory and practice in the development of advanced literacy. In M. C. Colombi & M. J. Schleppegrell, (Eds.), *Developing advanced literacy in first and second languages: Meaning with power* (pp. 1-20). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Crosson, A. C., Matsumura, L. C., Correnti, R., & Arlotta-Guerrero, A. (2012). The quality of writing tasks and students' use of academic language in Spanish. *The Elementary School Journal*, 112(3), 469-496.
- Culican, S. (2006). Learning to read: *Reading to learn*, a middle years literacy intervention research project, final report 2003-04. Catholic Education Office, Melbourne. <http://www.cecv.melb.catholic.edu.au/ResearchandSeminarPapers>
- Derewianka, B. (2003). Trends and issues in genre-based approaches. *RELC Journal*, 34(2), 133-154.
- Echevarria, J., & Vogt, M. E., & Short, D. J. (2008). *Making content comprehensible for English learners: The SIOP model* (3rd ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson.
- Fang, Z. (2006). The language demands of science reading in middle school. *International Journal of Science Education*, 28(5), 491-520.

- Fang, Z. (2008). Going beyond the Fab Five: Helping students cope with the unique linguistic challenges of expository reading in intermediate grades. *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy*, 51(6), 476-487.
- Fang, Z., & Schleppegrell, M. J. (2008). *Reading in secondary content areas: A language-based pedagogy*. Ann Arbor, MI, University of Michigan Press.
- Fang, Z., & Wang, Z. (2011). Beyond rubrics: Using functional language analysis to evaluate student writing. *Australian Journal of Language and Literacy*, 34(2), 147-165.
- Gebhard, M., Demers, J., & Castillo-Rosenthal, Z. (2008). Teachers as critical text analysts: L2 literacies and teachers' work in the context of high-stakes school reform. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 17, 274-291.
- Gebhard, M., & Harman, R. (2011). Reconsidering genre theory in K-12 schools: A response to school reforms in the United States. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 20, 45-55.
- Gebhard, M., Harman, R., & Seger, W. (2007). Reclaiming recess: Learning the language of persuasion. *Language Arts*, 84(5), 419-430.
- Gibbons, P. (2002). *Scaffolding language, scaffolding learning: Teaching second language learners in the mainstream classroom*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Gibbons, P. (2006). *Bridging discourses in the ESL classroom: Students, teachers and Researchers*. London and New York: Continuum.
- Hall, S. (2011). Immigration amnesty pros and cons. Retrieved from http://www.ehow.com/facts_4810340_immigration-amnesty-pros-cons.html
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1975). *Learning how to mean: Explorations in the development of language*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1978). *Language as a social semiotic: The social interpretation of language and meaning*. London: Arnold.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1993). Towards a language-based theory of learning. *Linguistics and Education* 5(2), 93-116.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1994). *An introduction to functional grammar* (2nd ed.). London: Edward Arnold.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1996). On grammar ad grammatics. In R. Hasan, D. Butt, & C. Cloran (Eds.), *Functional descriptions: Language form and linguistic theory* (pp. 1-38). Amsterdam: Benjamins.

- Halliday, M. A. K. (2003). *The collected works of M. A. K. Halliday, IV. The language of early childhood*. London: Continuum.
- Halliday, M. A. K., & Matthiessen, C. M. I. M. (2004). *An introduction to functional grammar* (3rd ed.). London: Arnold.
- Hammond, J., & Gibbons, P. (2005). Putting scaffolding to work: The contribution of scaffolding in articulating ESL education. *Prospect*, 20, 6-30.
- Hassan, R. (1989). Semantic variation and sociolinguistics. *Australian Journal of Linguistics*, 9(2), 221-276.
- Hasan, R. (1991). Questions as a mode of learning in everyday talk. In M. McCausland (Ed.), *Language education: Interaction and development* (pp. 70-119). Launceston: University of Tasmania.
- Hasan, R. (1996). Literacy, everyday talk and society. In R. Hasan & G. Williams (Eds.), *Literacy in society* (pp. 377-424). Harlow, Essex, UK: Addison Wesley Longman.
- Hasan, R. (2002). Ways of meaning, ways of learning: Code as an explanatory concept. *British Journal of Sociology of Education*, 23(4), 537-548.
- Hyland, K. (2002). Genre: Language, context, and literacy. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 22, 113-135.
- Hyland, K. (2003). Genre-based pedagogies: A social response to process. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 12(1), 17-29.
- Hyland, K. (2007). Genre pedagogy: Language, literacy and L2 writing instruction. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 16, 148-164.
- Jacobson, J., Johnson, K., & Lapp, D. (2011). *Effective instruction for English language learners: Supporting text-comprehension and communication skills*. New York: Guilford.
- Kaine, A. (2011, May 25). Cons for amnesty for illegal immigrants. Retrieved from http://www.ehow.com/info_8490383_cons-amnesty-illegal-immigrants.html
- Krashen, S. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. Oxford, UK: Pergamon Press.
- Lane, A. (2011, April 20). The advantages of amnesty. Retrieved from http://www.ehow.com/info_8260083_advantages-amnesty.html
- Ludwig, M. (2012, April 11). Two immigrants killed in ambush by Arizona gunmen. *Truthout*. Retrieved from <http://www.truth-out.org>

- Macken-Horarik, M. (1996). Literacy and learning across the curriculum: Towards a model of register for secondary school teachers. In R. Hasan & G. Williams (Eds.), *Literacy in*
- Macken-Horarik, M. (1998). Exploring the requirements of critical school literacy: A view from two classrooms. In F. Christie & R. Misson (Eds.), *Literacy and Schooling* (pp. 74-103). London: Routledge.
- Macken-Horarik, M. (2002). Something to shoot for: A systemic functional approach to teaching genre in secondary school science. In A. Johns (Ed.), *Genre in the classroom* (pp. 17-42). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Macken-Horarik, M. (2006a). Recognizing and realizing 'what counts' in examination English: Perspectives from systemic functional linguistics and code theory. *Functions of Language* 13(1), 1-35.
- Macken-Horarik, M. (2006b). Knowledge through "know how": Systemic functional grammatics and the symbolic reading. *English Teaching: Practice and Critique* 5(1), 102-121.
- Macken-Horarik, M. (2006c). Hierarchies in diversities: What students' examined responses tell us about literacy practices in contemporary school English. *Australian Journal of Language and Literacy*, 29(1), 52-78.
- Macken-Horarik, M., Love, K., & Unsworth, L. (2011). A grammatics 'good enough' for school English in the 21st century: Four challenges in realizing the potential. *Australian Journal of Language and Literacy*, 34(1), 9-23.
- Martin, J. R. (1992). *English text: System and structure*. Amsterdam: Benjamins.
- Martin, J. R. (1999). Mentoring semogenesis: genre-based literacy pedagogy revisited. In F. Christie (Ed.), *Pedagogy and the shaping of consciousness: Linguistic and social processes* (pp. 123-155). London: Cassell.
- Martin, J. R. (2000a). Design and practice: Enacting functional linguistics. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 20, 116-126.
- Martin, J. R. (2000b). Close reading: functional linguistics as a tool for critical discourse analysis. In L. Unsworth (Ed.), *Researching language in schools and communities: Functional linguistic perspectives* (pp. 274-303). London: Cassell.
- Martin, J. R. (2002a). *English text: System and structure*. Amsterdam: Benjamins.
- Martin, J. R. (2002b). Writing history: Construing time and value in discourses of the past. In

- M. C. Colombi & M. J. Schleppegrell, (Eds.), *Developing advanced literacy in first and second languages: Meaning with power* (pp. 87-118). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Martin, J. R. (2009). Genre and language learning: A social semiotic perspective. *Linguistics and Education*, 20, 10-21.
- Martin, J. R., & Rose, D. (2003). *Working with discourse: Meaning beyond the clause*. London: Continuum.
- Martin, J. R., & Rose, D. (2005). Designing literacy pedagogy: scaffolding democracy in the classroom. In R. Hasan, C. Matthiessen, & J. Webster (Eds.), *Continuing discourse on language: A functional perspective* (pp. 251-280). London: Equinox.
- Martin, J. R., & Rose, D. (2008). *Genre relations: Mapping culture*. London: Equinox.
- Maton, K., & Muller, J. (2007). A sociology for the transmission of knowledges. In Christie, F., & Martin, J. R. (Eds.), *Language, knowledge and pedagogy: Functional linguistic and sociological perspectives* (pp. 14-34). London and New York: Continuum.
- McRae, D., Ainsworth, G., Cumming, J., Hughes, P., Mackay, T., Price, K., Rowland, M., Warhurst, J., Woods, D., and Zbar, V. (2000). *What has worked, and will again: The IESIP Strategic Results Projects*. Canberra: Australian Curriculum Studies Association.
- National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition (2008). *The growing numbers of English language learners*. Retrieved from <http://www.ncela.gwu.edu>
- National Geographic/Hampton Brown (2003). *Edge: Reading, writing & language, teacher's edition, (Level B, Vol. 2)*. Carmel, CA: National Geographic School Publishing.
- Painter, C. (1986). The role of interaction in learning to speak and learning to write. In C. Painter & J. R. Martin (Eds.), *Writing to mean: Teaching genres across the curriculum* (pp.62-97). Applied Linguistics Association of Australia (Occasional Papers 9).
- Rose, D. (2005). Democratising the classroom: A literacy pedagogy for the new generation. *Journal of Education*, 37, 131-167.
- Rose, D. (2006). Reading genre: A new wave of analysis. *Linguistics and the Human Sciences* 2(1), 1-14.
- Rose, D. (2009). Writing as linguistic mastery: The development of genre-based literacy pedagogy. In Beard, R., Myhill, D., Riley, J., & Nystrand, M. (Eds.), *Sage handbook of writing development* (pp. 151-166). London: Sage.
- Rose, D. (2011a). *Implementation and outcomes of the professional learning program, 2010:*

Report for Western NSW Region, NSW Department of Education and Children's Services. Sydney: Reading to Learn. <http://www.readingtolearn.com.au>.

- Rose, D. (2011b). Beating educational inequality with an integrated reading pedagogy. In F. Chrisite & A. Simpson (Eds.), *Literacy and social responsibility: Multiple perspectives* (pp. 101-115). London, Equinox.
- Rose, D. (2011c). Genre in the Sydney School. In J. Gee & M. Handford (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of discourse analysis* (pp. 209-225). London: Routledge.
- Rose, D., & Martin, J. R. (2012). Learning to write, reading to learn: Genre, knowledge and pedagogy in the Sydney School. Bristol: Equinox.
- Rose, D., Rose, M., Farrington, S., and Page, S. (2008). Scaffolding literacy for indigenous health science students. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes* 7(3), 166-180.
- Rothery, J. (1989). Learning about language. In R. Hasan & J. R. Martin (Eds.), *Language development: Learning language, learning culture* (pp. 199-256). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- Rothery, J. (1994). *Exploring literacy in school English (Write it Right resources for literacy and learning)*. Sydney: Metropolitan East Disadvantaged Schools Program.
- Rothery, J. (1996). Making changes: developing an educational linguistics. In R. Hasan & G. Williams (Eds.), *Literacy in Society* (pp. 86-123). London: Longman.
- Scarcella, R. (1996). Secondary education in California and second language research. Instructing ESL students in the 1990s. *CATESOL Journal*, 9(1), 129-152.
- Scarcella, R. (2002). Some key factors affecting English learners' development of advanced literacy. In M. C. Colombi & M. J. Schleppegrell (Eds.), *Developing advanced literacy in first and second languages: Meaning with power* (pp. 209-226). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Schleppegrell, M. J. (1996). Conjunction in spoken English and ESL writing. *Applied Linguistics*, 17(3), 271-285.
- Schleppegrell, M. J. (1998). Grammar as resource: Writing a description. *Research in the Teaching of English* 32(2), 182-211.
- Schleppegrell, M. J. (2001). Linguistic features of the language of schooling. *Linguistics and Education*, 12(4), 431-459.
- Schleppegrell, M. J. (2004). *The language of schooling: A functional linguistics perspective*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

- Schleppegrell, M. J. (2006). The linguistic features of advanced language use: The grammar of exposition. In H. Byrnes (Ed.), *Advanced language learning: The contributions of Halliday and Vygotsky* (pp. 134-146). London and New York: Continuum.
- Schleppegrell, M. J. (2007). At last: The meaning in grammar. *Research in the Teaching of English*, 42(1), 121-128.
- Schleppegrell, M. J. (2012). Academic language in teaching and learning: Introduction to the special issue. *The Elementary School Journal*, 112(3), 409-418.
- Schleppegrell, M. J., & de Oliveira, L. C. (2006). An integrated language and content approach for history teachers. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 5, 254-268.
- Schleppegrell, M. J., Greer, S., & Taylor, S. (2008). Literacy in history: Language and meaning. *Australian Journal of Language and Literacy*, 31(2), 174-187.
- Short, D.J., & Fitzsimmons, S. (2007). *Double the work: Challenges and solutions to acquiring language and academic literacy for adolescent English language learners*. Alliance for Excellent Education, Washington, DC.
- Singh, P. (2002). Pedagogising knowledge: Bernstein's theory of the pedagogic device. *British Journal of Sociology of Education*, 23(4), 571-582.
- Veel, R. (2006). The *write it right* project: Linguistic modeling of secondary school and the workplace. In R. Whittaker, M. O'Donnell, & A. McCabe (Eds.), *Language and literacy: Functional approaches* (pp. 66-92). London: Continuum.
- Veel, R., & Coffin, C. (1996). Learning to think like an historian: The language of secondary school history. In R. Hasan & G. Williams (Eds.), *Literacy in Society* (pp. 191-231). London: Longman.
- Vygotsky, L. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Walford, G. (2008). *How to do educational ethnography*. London: Tufnell Press.
- Walqui, A., & van Lier, L. (2010). *Scaffolding the academic success of adolescent English language learners: A pedagogy of promise*. San Francisco, CA: WestEd.
- World Class Instructional Design and Assessment (WIDA) Consortium, <http://www.wida.us>.
- Yasuda, S. (2011). Genre-based tasks in foreign language writing: Developing writers' genre awareness, linguistic knowledge, and writing competence. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 20, 111-133.